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ABSTRACT

The publication is a collection of articles by graduate students dealing primarily with the issues and concerns of vocational and technical education. The articles and their authors are: A New Wrinkle in Cooperative Education, Donald E. Evans; Characteristics of Mid-Career Changers, Howard Markle; CBE: Panacea or Business as Usual?, Gerald Funk; "Co-op" for Co-op Coordinators, Gregory W. Gray; Decisions and Systems--The Administrator's Dilemma, Fred L. Bierly; Initiative in Teacher Education: Time is Running Out, Kurt Eschenmann; New Twists and Modernization: "Rip-offs" to Vocational Tradition, Edgar Farmer; Womens' Rights and Changes in Vocational Education, Chester P. Wichowski; Crossing the Bridge to the World of Work, Joseph P. Saam; Deliberation: Intimations of Immorality From Recollections of Early Childhood, Charles Simcox; Disadvantaged Students Are Included Too, Charles Eisentrout; Equalitarianism via Post-Secondary Vocational Education, Thomas C. Cooke; Occupational Information via TV? Some Strong Possibilities, Nancy Gilgannon; Soviet and American Attitudes: An Observation and Commentary, Jerome J. Kapitanoff; and Why Vocational Education Should be Offered in the Community Junior College, Edward Mann. (PF)

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THE
PENNSYLVANIA
STATE
UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENT
OF
VOCATIONAL
EDUCATION

WRITINGS OF GRADUATE STUDENTS: II

A MONTAGE OF THE MID-SEVENTIES

Issues & Concerns of Vocational Education

Edited by

George L. Brandon
Professor of Vocational Education

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Edited by

George L. Brandon
Professor of Vocational Education

The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania

May, 1975

FOREWORD

More in the nature of learning experience than production, this publication is entirely the work of our graduate students with assistance of several of our departmental secretaries. As the second in our series of collective student monographs, it has been six months in the making--a relatively long-term project which has stimulated the interest and effort of our on- and off-campus students. We commend their achievement. We also appreciate the offer and opportunity to produce the monograph at the invitation of Dr. Angelo C. Gilli, Sr., our Graduate Education and Research Chairman, who enthusiastically supported the project with high interest and resources.

Few areas of secondary and post-secondary education have their ups and downs as vocational and technical education. Our graduate students seem to thrive on trends and events of controversy, and this publication generally ran true to form in confronting some of the issues as our country approaches her bicentennial. Although planning for the monograph did begin in an issue-confronting theme, it has not explicitly met this focus. But of greatest importance, all of us have learned in the process.

The following student leadership comprising the Monograph Committee has been responsible for all aspects of planning and coordinating this publication:

George Borkovich	Kurt Eschenmann	*Arlene Sarvas
Debbie Davidson	*Edgar Farmer	**Donald Evans
Anna Baran	Nancy Gilgannon	**Jerry Funk

*Chairpersons
**Special assistance to the committee

We are especially indebted for the sustained interest, editing and typing of two members of our secretarial staff, Mrs. Debbie Davidson and Mrs. Anna Baran.

We have been pleased and rewarded with the voluntary contribution of manuscripts from our graduate students. Acceptance of their writings was in no sense competitive; nonetheless, all of the contributors to the volume surmounted the rigors and discipline of the committee review process, stern criticism at times, and the final attention to editing and elimination of nitty-gritty errors.

Finally, as faculty sponsor and collaborator, the "fun" has been mine. The rewards are invigorating. Ideas which are expressed are solely those of our students; if the ideas lack sophistication and pervasion it is, no doubt, attributable to my poor power of suggestion and over-concern of zeal for our students. As, I trust, the reader will discover, the over-concern is misplaced--the future rests in strong hands.

George L. Brandon
Professor of Vocational Education

March 31, 1975

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

FOREWORD ii
STUDENT COLLABORATORS. iv
LIST OF TABLES vii

THE ISSUES

A NEW WRINKLE IN COOPERATIVE EDUCATION - by Donald E. Evans. . . 1

CHARACTERISTICS OF MID-CAREER CHANGERS - by Howard Markle. . . . 16

CBE: PANACEA OR BUSINESS AS USUAL? - by Gerald Funk 25

"CO-OP" FOR CO-OP COORDINATORS - by Gregory W. Gray. 36

DECISIONS AND SYSTEMS--THE ADMINISTRATOR'S DILEMMA - by Fred L. Bierly 47

INITIATIVE IN TEACHER EDUCATION: TIME IS RUNNING OUT - by Kurt Eschenmann. 61

NEW TWISTS AND MODERNIZATION: "RIP-OFFS" TO VOCATIONAL TRADITION - by Edgar Farmer. 72

WOMENS' RIGHTS AND CHANGES IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION - by Chester P. Wichowski 81

THE CONCERNS

CROSSING THE BRIDGE TO THE WORLD OF WORK - by Joseph P. Saam . . 91

DELIBERATION: INTIMATIONS OF IMMORALITY FROM RECOLLECTIONS OF EARLY CHILDHOOD - by Charles Simcox 100

DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS ARE INCLUDED TOO - by Charles Eisentrout 113

EQUALITARIANISM VIA POST-SECONDARY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION - by Thomas C. Cooke. 131

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION VIA TV? SOME STRONG POSSIBILITIES - by Nancy Gilgannon 140

SOVIET AND AMERICAN ATTITUDES: AN OBSERVATION AND COMMENTARY - by Jerome J. Kapitanoff. 149

WHY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION SHOULD BE OFFERED IN THE COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGE - by Edward Mann. 167

LIST OF TABLES

Table | Page

1. A Comparison of Competency-Based and Conventional Systems of Instruction 30

A NEW WRINKLE IN COOPERATIVE EDUCATION

by
Donald E. Evans

The chief beneficiary of the demand for educational relevance through "off campus" learning is cooperative education. This recent demand of cooperative education has encouraged programs to spring up in schools throughout the country. The obvious fact is that the time and idea have met.[1] It is a product of time; it is also its victim.

One of the issues that victimizes cooperative education is the lack of leadership in multi-teacher coordinator programs. We would never expect a football coach to send his team on the gridiron without a quarterback; yet, we watch cooperative education teacher coordinators in an area do their own things without someone to call the signals, let alone someone who has acquired the needed competencies to make judgment to call the right signals.

This issue has created a new wrinkle in cooperative education that demands our attention now. If we agree that,

> . . . just as all education comes from some image of the future, all education produces some image of the future, then we must plan to accept the challenge to train leaders to cope with this vital emerging issue that will produce some image of the future.[2]

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[1]Dorothy E. McNutt and Richard L. Poth, "A Frontier Yet Explored - Are We Ready" Journal of Cooperative Education, Vol. XI, No. 1, November, 1974.

[2]Alvin Toffler, Future Shock (New York: Bantam Books, 1970), p. 419.

Why Be Concerned

During the past decade, local school districts have placed an increased emphasis on providing vocational education to all students who desire training for entry into the world of work. The Vocational Education Act of 1963, and subsequently the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968, made available financial and administrative assistance to local boards of education to provide vocational education for a greater number of students.[3]

One of the vocational education programs promoted by the Act of 1963 and Part G of the Amendments of 1968 was Cooperative Vocational Education.[4] The availability of federal dollars has enabled many school districts to incorporate this type of vocational education into their existent curriculum.

The concept of Cooperative Vocational Education is certainly not new.[5] The recent emphasis upon placing more students in a closely supervised on-the-job training experience which provides learning opportunities, has increased the opportunities of Cooperative Vocational Education. Consequently, there is a greater need for professionals with expertise necessary to coordinate these expanded offerings. As these programs were developed, and as they expanded

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[3]United States Congress, Vocational Education Act of 1963, Washington, D.C.: Public Law 88-210, Government Printing Office, 1963, p. 20.

[4]United States Congress, Vocational Education Amendments of 1968. Washington, D.C.: Public Law 90-576, Government Printing Office, 1968, p. 23.

[5]Donald E. Evans, "Hands On - Now It Has Meaning," Selected Writings of Graduate Students: I; Vocational-Technical Education Research Report, 1974, The Pennsylvania State University, p. 15.

educational opportunities for students and schools, many programs developed into multi-teacher coordinator cooperative education teams. The trend has placed new leadership responsibilities on vocational administrators and cooperative education teacher coordinators.

Many studies have been made and much has been written on the subject of leadership in the educational enterprise.[6] In this article, the author will apply some of these research results to the coordination of a multi-teacher coordinator cooperative vocational education program in an area vocational-technical school.

The Basic Mission

Organizing a multiple teacher coordinator department of cooperative education is complex and demanding if the department is to totally utilize the expertise of each staff member while meeting the needs of the students, school, and community. As numerous and varied as these needs may be, a strong team of teacher coordinators must be developed to function cooperatively to get the task done. This team must work together and share in the planning, operation and evaluation of the department. Successful educational enterprises depend upon the efforts of the people who organize and conduct them.[7] This fact is especially true of a successful cooperative education endeavor.

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[6]U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Organization and Operation of Local Programs of Vocational Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., p. 14.

[7]Ibid.

The Team Members

A cooperative education department is effective when each coordinator is well qualified.[8] Because of the special mission of cooperative education, the teacher coordinator may be from any of the traditional or emerging areas of vocational education. This experience provides a wide variety of occupational backgrounds on the team. The teacher-coordinator must have approved professional preparation, and he or she should also possess the special personal qualities which are imperative if success is to be realized. The key to any cooperative vocational education program is the teacher coordinator. The quality of a cooperative education team is very closely related to the competence and quality of each team member. Most vocational authorities agree that the success or failure of the program rests with the coordinator.[9] It is a truism that the quality of educational programs depends in final measure upon the competence of the professional personnel. This fact is perhaps more evident in cooperative occupational programs than in most other school endeavors because the teacher-coordinator is a highly visible figure.[10] He is on the "front line" when placing and following up student trainees in the world of work.

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[8]Pennsylvania Department of Education, Cooperative Vocational Education in Pennsylvania, Bureau of Vocational, Technical and Continuing Education, Box 911, Harrisburg, PA. 17126, p. 46.

[9]Ibid.

[10]Ralph E. Mason and Peter G. Haines, Cooperative Occupational Education (2d ed.; Danville, Illinois: Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1972), p. 125.

The Size of the Team

The number of teacher coordinators on a cooperative education staff depends upon many variables. The vocational administrator must evaluate these variables when making teacher coordinator assignments. There is no magic formula for calculating the time needed to do a given job in an occupational education program.[11] The administrator must realize that each cooperative education teacher coordinator arrangement is unique. It is not equal to that of any other teacher coordinator assignment. To some extent, the number of teacher coordinators has been established by state and federal funding guidelines.[12] These guidelines are based on various teacher coordinator assignments that might include: guiding and selecting student learners; enlisting and selection of training stations; articulating the student learner and training station match-ups and orientation; correlating related theory with on-the-job experience; plus supervision and evaluation of the total cooperative education endeavor.

Putting It All Together

The ability of the teacher coordinators to work together is the secret to the administration of a cooperative educator team. Working together as a team will be the key to success. As in any team, a team leader, chairman, captain, or in this situation, a "head" is needed to provide the leadership. The "head" would be directly responsible for

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[11] Ibid.

[12] Pennsylvania Department of Education, Pennsylvania State Plan for Vocational Education, State Board for Vocational Education, Harrisburg, PA. 17126, p. I-110.

every aspect of the cooperative education program. This obligation would involve the development of a balanced teacher coordinator task load to meet the educational needs of all student trainees.

A major contemporary challenge that arises is the motivation of each teacher coordinator, his satisfaction with his work, and its acceptance by his colleagues. The head coordinator should accept this challenge and consider it top priority.

In his role as team leader, the head coordinator must take the initiative in a number of specific ways while serving as the main spokesman and pace-setter for the whole program. He must exhibit leadership while giving all teacher coordinators in the department an opportunity to help develop the goals and purposes of the program; this approach is conducive to good staff morale. He must take the initiative in conducting continuous studies of training needs, in revising and improving related theory, instructional materials and methods, follow-up of student trainees, etc. His leadership must extend to the business leaders of the community. He needs to be among the community decision makers as they develop policy related to cooperative education.

The head coordinator must not be satisfied with the status quo. He must have the vision and initiative to constantly evaluate the program and identify its weaknesses, then implement the needed changes. The head coordinator is expected to make decisions, and when necessary, issue directives. He has the responsibility for preserving and improving the cooperative education program. His leadership can be expressed by facilitating the efforts of the staff members, and coordinating their activities so that every member of the team can

have the satisfaction of contributing his or her best efforts to the common task. He must always be sensitive to the public relations of the program so that the image of cooperative education and the school system will be positive and favorable.

The life of this educator is dynamic and challenging. His responsibility as the head coordinator is demanding of both physical and mental stamina. He must be a super special composite of professional education, technical knowledge, and "personality plus."

Competencies of the Mission Leader

Competencies of the head coordinator are many and varied. This individual must be concerned with responsibilities such as: administration; curriculum planning and instructional activities; extracurricular activities; research and evaluation; student guidance, placement and follow-up, community activities, and intra-school cooperation. The author has developed an extensive list of educational activities for a head coordinator of a multi-teacher coordinator program. This list is in Appendix A.

The prime competency is the skill in leadership. This individual must discover ways to work within staff. Working within the group is the only defensible concept of democratic leadership.[13] This relationship creates an atmosphere in which all team members can contribute their thinking to the program objectives.

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[13]Kimball Wiles, Supervision for Better Schools (New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1951), p. 10.

The teacher coordinators in the team must contribute to as many activities as possible. They must perform such duties as training station visits, home visitations, counseling with other instructors, and widening their circles of contacts with cooperating and prospective employers. Periodic visits to each training agency must be made. These visits must be purposeful with definite points to be observed. Home visits are necessary if parents are to be kept abreast of the on-the-job and related theory training; in turn, the teacher coordinator learns of home conditions and parental attitudes. Consultation with other instructors is necessary to determine the student-trainees' progress. This involvement also helps the other teachers to understand the purposes and objectives of Cooperative Vocational Education.

Cooperative education staff responsibilities will be assumed as teacher coordinators get involved and as they realize their share of the planning is needed. Staff creativeness will increase as teachers are given the feeling that their plans have value and that the supervisor is there to assist in carrying out plans rather than to veto them.[14]

The Need Is Now

With the increase in numbers of multiple teacher coordinator programs, more unique leadership characteristics are being demanded. We in cooperative education have come to recognize there are certain common denominator characteristics involved in the supervision of a

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[14]George L. Brandon, "An Appraisal of the Preparation of Industrial Education Supervisors in Ohio College for Teacher Education," Ph.D. Dissertation, 1952. Graduate School, Ohio State University, p. 72.

multi-teacher coordinator program. This recognition is the new wrinkle in cooperative education.

In a recent workshop in Pennsylvania on "The Future Directions of Cooperative Education," the following recommendation was developed: there should be centralization and coordination of all field experience programs in an area; the appointment of an educational specialist in field experience is needed to coordinate all programs; specific responsibility should be delegated in each Intermediate Unit for the planning, supervising and coordinating of all field experience programs.[15] This recommendation attests to the fact that the trend toward multi-teacher coordinator programs are revealing a new kind of "growing pains" - a lack of leadership.

Leadership characteristics can be taught and learned through experience and professional personnel education. The challenge, therefore, is to create an environment in which this unique kind of leadership can be widely studied, mastered, and activated. Today in particular, when new cooperative education leadership demands are acute, the challenge must be met with priority emphasis in order for individuals to become competent in the cooperative educational arena.

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[15] Donald E. Evans, Future Directions of Cooperative Education. Vocational-Technical Education Research Report, 1975. The Pennsylvania State University, p. 9.

Appendix A

Competencies of the Head Coordinator

Competencies of the head coordinator of cooperative education are many and varied. They include such involvement as:

A. Administrative

1. Participate in preparing the budget for the department
2. Responsible for requisitioning and keeping records of:
   a. materials and supplies
   b. equipment
   c. textbooks and reference books
3. Requisition, repair and replacement of equipment
4. Issue bulletins containing routine business, copy to administration
5. Prepare schedules for teaching and training station assignments for coordinators
6. Confer with director about selection of new teacher coordinators when replacing or adding to staff
7. Provide orientation for new teacher coordinators
8. Spend time with teacher coordinators in the related theory classroom and on-the-job visits of student trainees
9. Assist teacher coordinators when requested, or when the situation deems it necessary
10. Keep staff informed of professional developments concerning cooperative education
11. Provide the leadership for professional improvement through inservice activities
12. Plan meetings
    a. chair departmental meetings at regular intervals
    b. interdepartmental meetings with other student placement or work environment programs within the school and other schools
13. Assume the responsibility for every staff member

14. Encourage staff to pursue advanced course work for professional growth at appropriate college and to stay abreast of current developments by reading cooperative education journals, etc.

15. Act as liaison between staff and administration, and between staff and community

16. Be prepared to speak for and evaluate the efforts of the cooperative education program

17. Provide periodic reports to the administration and school board concerning cooperative education activities

18. Develop standards that comply with all requests from state and federal governments for reports, evaluations, etc.

19. Organize a systematic approach for staff visitation to the training stations

20. Carry out any additional administrative duties relative to the department

B. Curriculum Planning and Instructional Activities

1. Develop a sound philosophy of cooperative education that fits into the total school philosophy

2. Responsible for student-trainees, staff coordinators, and director understanding and full conversant of cooperative education objectives

3. Ascertain that related instruction contributes to objectives

4. Plan to provide adequately for student differences in:

   a. schedule adjustments

   b. variations of work station time allotments

5. Develop a file for cooperative education related handbooks, pamphlets, manuals, and other resource material

6. Re-evaluate and reorganize instructional materials regularly

7. Establish and maintain a departmental library for students and staff

8. Provide for the complete use of audio visual materials

9. Participate in curriculum modification and development

10. Provide for flexibility to meet the student needs

11. Develop and revise annually the course of study

12. Establish standards of achievement and marking

13. Use evaluation data for planning and revising the curriculum

14. Develop a file of training plans that can be used for on-the-job supervision by the coordinators

C. Extracurricular Activities

1. Encourage student trainees to become involved with the youth club in their division of vocational education:

   a. FBLA - OEA

   b. FHA - HERO

   c. FFA

   d. DECA

   e. VICA

2. Assist club advisors with the youth club activities

3. Encourage student involvement in other school activities

4. Conduct an annual employer-employee banquet

D. Research and Evaluation

1. Study significant research in cooperative education

2. Encourage research and study by staff and interested college students

3. Conduct regular self-evaluation of the cooperative education program

4. Conduct surveys to determine effectiveness

5. Participate in various symposiums and conferences

E. Student Guidance, Placement, and Follow-Up:

1. Survey the student needs

2. Make materials available on vocational opportunities in business and industry

3. Assume responsibility for general welfare of every student-trainee

4. Work closely with the guidance counselors to identify student job interests and career objectives

5. Work closely with school administration and guidance counselors to make necessary schedule adjustments to fit the training plan

6. Conduct regular follow-up of student-trainees so that related theory and placement can be articulated with student interests and community needs

7. Develop a "job bank" that will aid in more efficient student trainee placement

8. Maintain up-to-date file on all graduates as to job changes, advancement, etc.

F. Community Activities

1. Participate in civic club activities and professional organizations

2. Develop and maintain an active advisory committee

3. Compile a very effective and comprehensive public relations program

4. Be familiar and involved with various trade unions

5. Cooperate with BES office and their officials, and solicit their assistance to place students

6. Be acquainted with Labor Law officials and abide by the state and federal regulations

7. Become involved with educational committees sponsored by business and civic organizations

8. Survey the needs of the community

G. Intra-school Cooperation

1. Maintain rapport with other schools

2. Participate in other school inservice meeting and staff activities to secure school and faculty cooperation

3. Initiate communication with other nearby cooperative education programs

4. Develop and organize an inservice program involving all cooperative education teacher coordinators and placement officials from all areas for the purpose of professional improvement

5. Assist local schools in the selection and recruitment of cooperative education students

6. Assist in expansion of existing vocational educational opportunities in the sending high schools

CHARACTERISTICS OF MID-CAREER CHANGERS

by
Howard Markle

The Job Loss

The purpose of this paper is to examine in some detail the personal and societal causes for changing careers in "midstream." Some people choose to change careers, but most are forced by a combination of circumstances (government fiscal policy, economic downturns, technological obsolescence, personal problems, etc.) to seek work for which they are unprepared. Today's workers seem to be caught in a squeeze between time spent preparing for work and time spent working. No longer can one prepare himself for a life-long career. Rather, he faces continual upgrading just to maintain his job; and, in many cases, occasional retraining for a new one.

The mid-career changer, for this paper, is anyone between the age of 35 and 50. However, it is possible that this mid-career change could occur before the age of thirty-five as well as following retirement. These ages were chosen because this is the time when traditionally, a worker "has it made." But what used to be midstream in a worker's career may now be the end.

People become unemployed for a number of reasons: physical and mental disabilities, improper credentials, prejudice, environmental obstacles (one-industry location) and personal obstacles.[1] People in

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[1]Donald W. Tiffany, James R. Cowan, and Phyllis M. Tiffany, The Unemployed: A Social-Psychological Portrait (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970), p. 14.

mid-career are feeling the pressure of advancing technology, the better-educated young, cutbacks in government and corporate spending, and the need to relocate.[2] Middle-aged workers tend to "settle down" to a work-style and a life-style that makes changes difficult. This inability to change often causes middle-aged workers to suffer long-term unemployment. Industry retrains some of its own workers, but it seems more interested in retiring older workers in order to help shrink the payroll. Automation continues to run ahead of qualified manpower.[3]

Once unemployed, the mid-career changer faces many obstacles to re-employment that are not under his control. Research indicates that the Employment Service gives more help to younger workers (under 39 years of age) than to older workers.[4] According to The Manpower Report of the President, 1974, extended layoffs of older workers are often used by industry to protect pension funds from the drain of retirement. Added to this is the fact that many pensions are not portable; i.e., they cannot be transferred from one company to another. Engineers, scientists and technicians who work for defense related industries, such as aerospace, are at the mercy of government contracts. Regardless of attempts to "equalize" the work force, mid-career changing is most difficult for women, blacks, rural dwellers and low income wage earners. Perhaps the

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[2]U.S. Department of Labor and U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Manpower Report of the President (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1974).

[3]William A. Westley and Margaret W. Westley, The Emerging Worker (Montreal, Canada: McGill-Queen's University Press, 1971), p. 46.

[4]Harold L. Sheppard and A. Harvey Belitsky, Promoting Job Finding Success for the Unemployed (Kalamazoo, Michigan: The W. E Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, April, 1968), p. 7.

overall impediment to continuous employment in one job, including those that are "satisfying," is best expressed in this quote:

> The age of automation and mass consumption is a state of "fluidity" in which a man may expect in his own lifetime to change his job, to be retrained, to change his social and geographic environment, his friends, his community, his standard of living, even his beliefs and values, not once, but perhaps many times.[5]

Unfortunately, there exist many additional personal barriers to career changing; the worker often feels helpless rather than competent when faced with them. After the age of 35, a worker tends to feel a greater threat at the prospect of forced job change. Prior to that age many workers are eager to change to positions of greater opportunity, but after 35, their aspirations often change to a concern for job security.[6] The acceptance of a mode of life and "settling down" is the beginning of personal deterioration.[7] If this deterioration is coupled with an unexpected condition of unemployment, the results could be disastrous. In The Unemployed: A Social-Psychological Portrait, Tiffany points out several possible psychological problems that could be encountered by the middle-aged out-of-work person:

1. Most people lose jobs because of interpersonal problems.
2. After job loss, the worker falls prey to disease, disability, powerlessness and uselessness.
3. Existing social programs encourage unproductive activity and dependence.
4. Many feel that it is useless to plan ahead anymore because the future is a matter of good or bad fortune.

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[5]Westley and Westley, The Emerging Worker, p. 43

[6]Ibid., p. 65.

[7]S. S. Dubin, Professional Obsolescence (The English Universities Press Ltd., June, 1970), p. 110.

5. If unemployment becomes chronic, the worker tends to be fearful of the world, anxious, self-depreciative, unrealistic and further, rejects the opposite sex.

6. Those who seek psychiatric help are further hindered for employment because of the "mental patient" label.

7. The "failure syndrom" (actually choosing to fail) is common among previously employed middle aged women.

Without belaboring the issues further, it is clear that dismissal from the work force most often creates great personal stress. It should be noted too, that workers often resort to alcohol and extramarital affairs in an attempt to deal with their resulting feelings of worthlessness; and perhaps worse, statistics show a rapid increase in coronary heart disease between the ages of 35 and 40 that is related to unemployment.[8]

The Choice to Change

Fortunately for some workers, the mid-career change is a matter of choice. Many have periods of unemployment, but they eventually make the transition from one career to another successfully. Government agencies, such as the Employment Service, Operation Mainstream, the Department of Labor's correctional programs, labor market information (LMI), MDTA, CETA, TMRP, etc., have assisted those who seek help. Another example of legislation is the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967: its purpose is to stop discriminatory hiring practices that exclude the older worker from re-employment. Again, the unemployed must choose to use these delivery systems in order to facilitate the transition from one career to

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[8]James O'Toole, Work in America (Report of a Special Task Force to the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare) (Cambridge, Massachusetts: The MIT Press. W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, January, 1973), p. 40.

another. But, it should be remembered that the federal government is most likely to support retraining and traineeships which are relevant to programs of national need.[9] Industry helps in this choice by creating career patterns that can be changed within the company. This kind of career changing works less well than previously expected because there seems to be a trend away from company loyalty and toward the profession or discipline itself. More successful are those organizations which provide an open and experimental climate for all workers as well as financial assistance for continuing education.[10] This "open and experimental climate" often includes bonuses and promotions for those acquiring more education, rewards for those who present papers to professional organizations, sabbatical leaves, and at the very least, expenses for attending seminars and conferences. In general, those industries that provide career patterns with planned up-grading will probably not lose as many workers through obsolescence, and the second or third career choice of the worker can be made within the company. If the worker decides to change companies, as well as careers, it usually is the result of his own feeling of obsolescence.[11] Because of this feeling of obsolescence, the worker often seeks an increase in salary, more influence or power, greater status, a better climate, etc. Occasionally, a career changer will "drop out," blaming the "rat race" for his dissatisfaction, and take up an entirely different life-style.

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[9]Dubin, op. cit., p. 20.

[10]Ibid., pp. 43-45.

[11]O'Toole, loc. cit.

"Motivation in Professional Updating," one of the papers contained in Professional Obsolescence, presents some behaviors characteristic of those who plan ahead for a change in their careers. The most successful changers have something called "achievement motivation." More specifically, achievement motivation describes an individual who:

1. Exhibits entrepreneurial behavior. (The sense of working for oneself while working for others.)
2. Seeks innovative risk-taking.
3. Has a high degree of personal responsibility.
4. Sets realistic goals.
5. Prefers problem situations which provide feedback of performance.
6. Seeks opportunities where desire and achievement will not be thwarted.
7. Thinks about how to do things better.[12]

If one seeks security as a high priority item in employment, his "satisfactions" then come from outside the workplace. Mid-career changers often choose this option after a worklife of insecurity. However, no job is ever secure in light of our present world-wide situation. Whatever choices are made among careers, job security, to a great degree, is outmoded.[13]

Education is to a large extent responsible for the activity of those who seek new careers at the expense of old ones. An increase in the amount of education is usually matched with an increase in job reward expectation and an increase in dissatisfaction with the present job. The present job can sometimes be redesigned, and thereby improved, making

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[12] Dubin, op. cit., p. 41.

[13] O'Toole, op. cit., pp. 117-122.

a change in career unnecessary. More often, though, the worker desires a "fresh start." Being better educated, he regards his new career as a "healthy" change. He is willing to relocate, to retrain again at some future time, and perhaps be self-employed. His newly acquired education and career should lend beyond just "making a living," and his reeducation should be a time for self evaluation. Thus, as he learns more about himself, he should be better equipped to face the possibility of a lower material standard of living as well as a loss of status in favor of a job that enhances the richness of his life.[14]

The Role of Vocational Education

Vocational education, at all levels, must shift some of its emphasis from specific training skills to skills needed for satisfactory employment in general. A worker need not suffer the rigors of unemployment for long just because his particular skill is no longer needed by industry. With few exceptions, his skill should be "generalized" enough so that alternate forms of employment are always available to him. For example, the laws of physics and chemistry are not likely to suffer from obsolescence as new discoveries are made in technology. The technologist soon loses his job unless he quickly acquires the new technology; this quick acquisition can be accomplished through knowledge already gained in the fields of physics and chemistry.

Low level unskilled jobs will continue to suffer from high turnover rates, low wages and absenteeism. "Career" changers on this level often tend to move laterally from one unsatisfying job to another. Ethically,

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[14]Dubin, op. cit., p. 76.

can vocational education train people for jobs that are inherently unsatisfying? Labor, industry and government must redesign many of these jobs to accomodate the worker. Taylorism is dead.

Vocational education must look beyond the classroom and the immediate job market. (Some critics of vocational education claim that it trains people for jobs already suffering from obsolescence.) MDTA and CETA are just two of many programs enacted by the Federal Government to fill the training void for mid-career changers. Vocational education has not done the total job, and maybe it cannot. CETA is a quick solution for immediate problems. If the long-term concerns are sacrificed, then CETA will train the same people several times and at great cost. Presently the first round of training is vocational education's responsibility. Hopefully, vocational education can soon reduce the need for CETA-type programs.

In summary, vocational education needs to equip the entry-level workforce with skills that facilitate job changing as well as job upgrading. New titles for old jobs does not bring about a lasting increase in job satisfaction for the worker.

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CBE: PANACEA OR BUSINESS AS USUAL?

by
Gerald Funk

Something New Under the Sun?

Competency based (or performance based) education is one of the hottest issues in education today. Proponents praise its virtues with comment that it will be "a salvation of education," "a shining knight on a white charger," and similar acronyms. Those opposed speak of the movement as "old wine in new bottles," "a good idea if one could figure out what it is," and others. It appears that one is either for or against with little middle ground.

The movement to competency based education (CBE) has been in various stages of development for the last decade, gaining momentum as time progresses. Teaching and learning, using a competency approach, has been in existence for a much longer period, although it might not have been thought of as such. The technique has been used in varying degrees when preparing workers for employment, particularly when need is great and time is of the essence. Subjects and course areas can, and have been, reduced to essential requirements based on the task. When available training and learning time have been reduced, programs have been adjusted to insure that trained persons have been available when needed, and regardless of time reductions, the system appears to have been equal to the task. This fact was very much in evidence during World War II when the need for trained workers was acute. CBE methods were used for training workers, regardless of terminology used. These practices have been

pulled off the shelf when needed and since they appear to get the job done, it is only natural that the techniques would gain favor.

In order to understand CBE, one must have a clear idea of: 1) the definitions that apply; 2) reasons why the traditional system of education will not suffice; 3) gains that may be realized through use of CBE; and 4) arguments, pro and con, as voiced by persons touched by changes brought about by CBE. In all of these, consideration should be given to the philosophical, psychological, and scientific issues and data, regardless of supportive or non-supportive evidence.

The term performance based and competency based are used interchangeably by most persons. Performance indicates an act or observable behavior while competency includes performance, knowledge and values. When CBE is used with teacher preparation and certification, it is defined as total education of classroom teachers.[1] Competency based would appear more descriptive and is gradually replacing the term 'performance' as a title for the program.

Acceptance and Rejection

From the literature and reports on CBE, and they are prolific, it would appear that the program has received general acceptance. On the other hand, there seem to be those in the academic community who are opposed or not necessarily converted. Studies during the 60's show dissatisfaction and shortcomings with the normative or traditional

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[1]Margaret Lindsay, Performance Based Teacher Education: Examination of a Slogan, Journal of Teacher Education, Volume XXIV, Number 3, Fall 1973.

teaching process.[2] As they relate to teacher education, these constraints would include: 1) teacher education curricula are not built upon the actual work requirements of teachers; 2) instruction is not tailored to meet the needs of individuals; 3) learning experiences are not provided which relate directly to professional needs; and 4) the educational system is not systematically evaluated.[3] Each of these limitations could be applied to our general education system, and they could describe the dissatisfaction voiced by increasingly larger numbers of people.

Houston and Housman, in reviewing the mandated CBTE in Texas, point out that:

1. Teacher education never has been adequate in America.
2. Societal and educational development of the past two decades have created school challenges which can be met only by teachers with vastly improved professional preparation; in effect, changing conditions have rendered teacher education even less adequate.
3. To fail to concentrate on improving the preservice and continuing education of teachers is to risk the viability of our educational systems.[4]

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[2]Curtis R. Finch and James B. Hamilton, Performance-Based Teacher Education Curricula: Implications for Programs, The Center for Vocational and Technical Education, The Ohio State University, 1973.

[3]Stanley Elam, Performance-Based Teacher Education: What is the State of the Art? American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., 1971.

[4]Robert W. Houston and Robert B. Housman, CBTE: The Ayes of Texas, Phi Delta Kappan, January, 1974.

A review of articles both for and against the establishment of CBTE in Texas shows strong language with little or no empirical data to support either position. It appears that some persons have resorted to emotional appeals to attract followers and their emotionalism has displaced dialog to a greater extent than should be the case in an academic community. Others relate the call for change to the military-industrial role in our society. Still others cite a lack of sensitivity and appreciation for the needs of the student who faces the realities of the real world after leaving the artificial, theoretical world of the classroom. Lack of sensitivity and appreciation for the needs of the student is particularly disturbing and is voiced by many who have experienced "an education for nothing," as has been expressed in the plight of the estimated 60% of the high school graduates who do not continue in higher education, receive no job training, but are "turned loose" on the job market each year. With this clamor, it is not surprising that changes have been called for.

Proponents of the movement cite studies showing validity and acceptance of CBE. Young and Von Mondfrans in their article on psychological implications of competency based education develop a rationale of interest, motivation, frustration and self-concept that explains the validity of improved learning through CBE.[5]

Klingstedt, in a similar paper, explains that programmed learning was a forerunner of competency based education.[6] His views of

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[5]Jon I. Young and Von Mondfrans, Psychological Implications of Competency-Based Education, Educational Technology, 1972.

[6]Joe Lars Klingstedt, Philosophical Basis for Competency-Based Education, Educational Technology, 1972.

experimentalism being the thought pattern that gave us CBE is particularly interesting. He bases these views on: 1) the rapid and constant social and technological changes in the world, 2) educational practice should be based on evidence provided by psychological data, and 3) man's psychological and sociological behavior is based on an economic and well-being motive. His arguments are persuasive, especially when he relates current practices in competency based eudcation to work of experimental psychologists such as Pavlov, Hull, Watson, Thorndike and Skinner. His expression that education is a step-by-step process moving from the simple to the complex and that to study man means to study his behavior, logically leads to conditioning and behavior modification. Since criterion levels of performance are spelled out in CBE, the individual will have gained a real sense of accomplishment when he reaches required performance goals and others recognize his ability to perform at a competent level in his occupation. This leads to the use of behavioral objectives within CBE, which relates to the experimentalists' belief that learning is a change in behavior.

A Comparison

What are the advantages of teaching competencies in relation to the traditional methods of instruction? The following comparative table developed by Young and Von Mondfrans is representative of the thoughts of many persons who advocate the use of competency based educational practices.[7]

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[7]Young and Von Mondfrans, loc. cit.

TABLE 1

A Comparison of Competency-Based and Conventional Systems of Instruction

Question	Competency-Based	Conventional
1. Who sets the goals and objectives of instruction?	Both the teacher and student are usually involved. When the teacher sets the goals and objectives the student is told what they are and often is allowed some choice of objectives or goal.	The teacher usually sets the goals and objectives. Often they are not clearly defined. Students are usually not told what they are. Students usually do not have a choice.
2. Who decides on the means and procedures of instruction?	Students often have a choice of alternative routes, experiences and materials to use in pursuing a given goal or objective. The student controls the amount of time spent on the goal or objective.	The teacher usually controls the situation and presents all students with the same materials and experiences for the same amount of time.
3. What is learned?	Students usually learn how to do something.	Students may learn about some something.
4. Who decides on the evaluation procedures?	The teacher ensures that the evaluation procedures are consistent with the objectives. Often the student has a choice of ways to demonstrate that he can perform as expected.	The teacher usually gives a test of his or her own design. Students often don't know what is expected of them. Testing procedure tend to be a paper-and-pencil test.

TABLE 1 (con't)

Question	Competency-Based	Conventional
5. When does evaluation take place?	When the student indicates he is ready.	When the teacher is through teaching a unit of instruction.
6. When does the student move on to the next set of learning goals and objectives?	When the student has mastered the last set of objectives and goals. The student continues working on a set of goals or objectives until mastery is achieved.	When the last unit has been taught and the evaluation of students is completed. Students may have "failed" or "passed" the last unit at various levels of proficiency. Nevertheless, all students move on to new content.

Possible System Improvements

One might consider that CBE provides improvements over normative systems, but does this assertion apply to all education? With the lack of empirical data, it seems difficult to justify discarding all traditional education.

It would appear that there may be subject areas that lend themselves more readily to CBE techniques, areas more readily adaptable to CBE methods. Those that fall in the cognitive and psychomotor domain might be favorably considered; but, where does the affective reside? There does not appear to be empirical data available that would logically cause one to substitute CBE for the learning activities that fall in the affective domain at this time.

In investigating the issue of CBE versus normative education practices, one must consider the psychological means of acquiring basic facts. Is there a difference in acquiring and processing data? It would appear not. Sensory perception is used by the learner in both methods. Processing and storing data would be similar. Where then does the difference lie?

One might consider the difference in teaching/learning techniques. CBE tends to focus on specifics where normative methods appear to be more broad or general. Attention and motivation appear easier to develop with CBE, but this might be countered through versatility in a normative system. Of course the versatile teacher might be expected to produce even better results in the CBE system.

If one considers achieving rules for higher level cognitive action, the same sequence of action would apply for both CBE and normative systems. While rule learning might be considered a concept chaining

action, rules will vary in content. If rules are developed through concepts, they will distinguish among different ideas. Rules developed through concepts may also permit the person to respond to specific situations. In either situation acquisition of rules will lead to problem solving in a hierarchical sequence.

The instructional sequence for learning rules[8] appears very similar to the methods used for behavior modification in CBE. In step one, the learner is informed about the performance he is expected to master when learning is complete--a behavioral objective. Step two questions the learner in a way that requires recall of the previous learned concepts that make up the rule. Step three uses cues to lead in putting the rule together (concept chaining). Rule four requires rule demonstration. These in turn lead to problem solving and new learning.

The Real Difference?

There is nothing readily apparent that would explain differences in acquisition of learning using either CBE or normative methods. It rather would appear that instructional techniques and the instructor's concept of those items of importance in relation to the learner's background (or data base) and ability are the greater differences in the two systems. There are undoubtedly course areas, particularly in the cognative and psychomotor area, that might offer improved learning using CBE methods. Here again, results would be in direct relation to the student's ability and the versatility and expertise of the teacher; although attention and motivation should be enhanced using CBE methods.

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[8]Robert M. Gagne, The Conditions of Learning (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970), pp. 63-64.

One area of concern would be in the area of the affective domain. Philosophical and moralistic issues may be more difficult to adapt to CBE. In teacher preparation, would CBE reduce the broad areas of knowledge with which one should become acquainted, in the interest of teaching/learning specific competencies? While it is true that one should have depth in his specialty, one who has few related interests can be boring and might have limitations in a classroom. Perhaps it would be to the best interests of all concerned if a determination were made of those curricula that lend themselves to CBE and those that are best served by a normative system. We would then have the best of both and lack of data would indicate a need for research to determine:

1. Those areas where CBE would improve over normative systems.
2. Psychological impact of CBE on learning.
3. Learning processes, that when employed, provide improvement in learning when using CBE methods as compared to normative systems.

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"CO-OP" FOR CO-OP COORDINATORS

by
Gregory W. Gray

Popular Program but Unprepared Personnel

There are many reasons for the recent popularity of cooperative vocational education programs in the United States. The Office of Education has recommended that school districts acquaint students with the world of work by releasing them from school for a part of the school day. Therefore field experiences, work study, and cooperative vocational education programs are being initiated in unprecedented numbers across our country. Also, the Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare published the following statement in 1968:

> The part-time cooperative plan is undoubtedly the best program we have in vocational education. It consistently yields high placement records, high employment stability, and high job satisfaction. Students cannot be trained faster than they can be placed. The availability of training stations with employers is limited by the needs of the employer.[1]

The most important reason is Part G of the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 which provided large sums of money for the initiation of cooperative vocational education (CVE) programs. This new vocational legislation suggests even greater amounts of Federal money be channeled into cooperative programs.

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[1]Bureau of Vocational, Technical and Continuing Education, Pennsylvania Department of Education. Cooperative Vocational Education in Pennsylvania (Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania Department of Education, 1973), p. 3.

Because of these reasons, school districts have responded quickly to please the Office of Education. However, this has caused one major problem. In their rush to please the Office of Education, many school districts found themselves with a cooperative vocational education program and no qualified cooperative vocational education teacher-coordinator. School officials were asking colleges and universities to supply this much needed manpower. Therefore, makeshift co-op classes were instituted by colleges and universities to certify the potential teacher-coordinators.

There are all kinds of problems and difficulties encountered by the various states in attempting to certify teachers. This article is not intended to set criteria for certification but to discuss criteria for establishing quality teacher-preparation programs at the college and university level. These programs will be designed to properly prepare perspective CVE teacher-coordinators for the challenge of running a cooperative vocational education program.

The most important part of this criteria is an internship. Almost all educators would agree that a student-teaching experience is of utmost importance for future teacher success. It is hypocritical to believe we can expect successful CVE teacher-coordinators without a similar experience. Cooperative education is here to stay, and if we are not careful in the preparation of our teacher-coordinators, we will find ourselves with a monster we cannot control.

Qualifications for Co-op Certification

The University of Minnesota discusses the preparation of cooperative vocational education personnel:

> The preparation of cooperative vocational education personnel should be a shared responsibility of the State Departments of Education, teacher training institutions, local schools, and employers who provide directed occupational experience for teachers in training. There are basically three groups of individuals who receive pre-service training: (1) young high school graduates with minimal occupational experience who are completing a four-year college degree, (2) experienced business and industry or public service workers who return to college to prepare for teaching, (3) experienced teachers in other subject matter fields who must be certified for vocational education and who may lack adequate occupational experience [2]

Minnesota sets criteria of technical course work, professional course work, vocational education course work, and occupational experience for certification as a co-op coordinator. Farmer S. Smith was more specific in setting his qualifications for certification. He suggests that co-op coordinators be graduates of an accredited college or university, have at least eight semester hours in trade and industrial subjects, and of course, occupational work experience.[3]

Both the University of Minnesota and Smith discuss the importance of occupational work experience for co-op certification. Minnesota suggests a minimum of one to three years as adequate and Smith believes two years to be essential for future co-op success. Smith makes note that the co-op coordinator must have some occupational work experience in order for him to understand the problems which students encounter in industry.[4] In addition to this fact, a publication of The University of Minnesota states:

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[2]University of Minnesota, A Guide for Cooperative Vocational Education (Minneapolis, Minnesota: College of Education, Division of Vocational and Technical Education, 1969), p. 104.

[3]Farmer S. Smith, Industrial Cooperative Training (Durham, NC: American Printers, Ltd., 1972), pp. 77-78.

[4]Ibid., p. 78.

> One of the reasons for insufficient cooperative vocational education personnel is the necessity of finding individuals who have adequate occupational experience as well as the required educational preparation. There are many individuals who begin teaching with minimal occupational experience who later discover that their practical knowledge in the occupational field is inadequate.[5]

Others, however, are now beginning to question the value of occupational work experience as an indicator of future teacher success. Kapes and Pawlowski concluded that "while industrial and teaching experience are not related to student shop achievement, college credits earned are related in a positive manner." They also go on to say that:

> It is important to point out that industrial experience while considered a necessary condition for entry into vocational-technical education as a teacher, yielded either no relationship or a small negative relationship with shop achievement.[6]

If current studies are indicating that occupational work experience is not important to teacher success, we can conclude that occupational work experience should not be an important criteria in certifying co-op coordinators. Co-op teacher coordinators are involved in placing students in a wide variety of occupations. Therefore, it is unrealistic to require a specified period of occupational work experience in a particular trade area. It is suggested that the requirement of occupational work experience advocated by Smith and The University of Minnesota be replaced with a period of time spent with a successful co-op teacher coordinator.

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[5]University of Minnesota, op. cit., p. 106.

[6]Jerome T. Kapes and Vladimir Pawlowski, Characteristics of Vocational-Technical Instructors and Their Relationship to Student Shop Achievement (University Park, PA: Department of Vocational Education, The Pennsylvania State University, 1974), p. 49.

This would give the potential co-op teacher coordinator the "on-the-job" work experience we all believe is so vital in preparing persons for employment. The best way to accomplish this is through an internship program.

Internship Characteristics

An "internship" generally describes a technique with the following characteristics:

1. The technique is used in professional or sub-professional curricula at collegiate levels (in two-year or four-year institutions).
2. It is typically undertaken as a culminating experience prior to the student's graduation but after preliminary classroom work.
3. It occurs in an actual professional job situation where the intern experiences the requirements of employment.
4. It is conceived as a way primarily of enabling the student to apply the concepts and skills he has learned in the college classroom rather than a way of learning new skills and knowledges.
5. It is usually a full-time, resident experience and typically at least three months in length in order to provide a complete experience.
6. The intern is usually placed in a firm or agency that is selected by the college for its progressive method of operation.
7. The intern is supervised at his internship agency by a professional person who has been selected for his ability in his profession and for his competence as a trainer.[7]

The internship for co-op coordinators can best be characterized as a period of professional experience after completing the necessary course work for certification, but prior to obtaining it.

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[7] Ralph E. Mason and Peter G. Haines, Cooperative Occupational Education (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1972), p. 17

Internship General Principles

Dean and Stranger have discussed internships for administrators in a recent article. They conclude that:

> Internship assignments should be designed to provide a wide variety of experiences. An opportunity to gain those knowledges and understandings which stimulate the development of human skills that are so essential for the vocational education administrator should be provided.[8]

These same principles would hold true in the establishing of an internship for CVE teacher-coordinators.

The internship should be a carefully planned segment in the process of preparing CVE teacher-coordinators. However, most universities and colleges omit this valuable segment because of numerous reasons. Many colleges and universities feel the pressure applied by school officials to mass produce CVE personnel and they do not have the time to include this segment of preparation. Some teacher education institutions cannot afford the time or money to properly supervise the internship. Other colleges and universities see no value in the internship. It is ironic that vocational departments that prepare cooperative education personnel, believe in the philosophy of on-the-job work experience, yet they do not provide an opportunity to practice the "hands on" philosophy in the preparation of qualified CVE teacher-coordinators.

It must be recognized that many of the persons preparing to be CVE teacher-coordinators are presently employed as full-time teachers. This makes the timing of the internship very crucial. It would seem most

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[8]Thomas C. Dean and Norman R. Stranger, "The Preparation of Administrators for Post-Secondary Vocational Education: New Perspectives," Journal of Industrial Teacher Education, Vol. II, No. 2 (Winter, 1973), p. 65.

suitable for these persons to undertake their internship experience during the summer months. This is indeed possible because most cooperative education programs are on a year-round schedule. The teacher-coordinator is employed on an extended schedule, and essentially conditions are the same for cooperative education in July as in March. This does not infer that the summer should be the only time that the internship would be made available. It would be most advantageous for the college supervisor to have five or six internship programs operating each term.

The college supervisor must select the best cooperative education programs to be used for internships. Just as the CVE teacher-coordinator must evaluate potential training stations for his students, the college supervisor must evaluate the CVE programs to be used for the internship experience. He must also have approval from the administration before preparing any type of internship program for the student.

College credit should be obtained for the internship. Indiana University of Pennsylvania has a similar program for distributive education students and gives six credit hours for this experience. It is recommended that the internship for preparing CVE teacher-coordinators be given credit. If the internship is part of a master's degree program, the six credits should be part of the required 30 credits and not six credits above and beyond the 30.

Preparing to Meet the Challenge

The internship "a transition to professional practice wherein the neophyte applies learned theory to actual practice, adapting himself to the demands of the employer and fellow employees."[9]

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[9]Mason and Haines, op. cit., p. 101.

The internship experience should be the most rewarding and beneficial experience in the student's curriculum. To insure this, the college supervisor and supervising teacher-coordinator must develop a plan which enables the student to gain the most benefits from the experience. The intern should be exposed to and involved with student selection for the co-op program, interviews, student evaluation, supervision on the job, and all the other activities that the CVE teacher-coordinator normally encounters.

The intern has learned about child labor laws, training agreements, supervision, and evaluation in the classroom. The internship experience provides him with the opportunity to apply those things learned in his college classes under the watchful eye of the supervising teacher-coordinator. It is very interesting to look at the similarities between the internship for the perspective cooperative education teacher-coordinator and the on-the-job work experience of the student trainees in cooperative education.

The co-op coordinator will carefully select training stations for his students just as the college supervisor carefully select the sites for the intern. The co-op coordinator sets up a training plan of various activities which he wishes his students to be exposed to, just as the college supervisor plans the intern's exposure to the various problems and challenges facing the co-op coordinator. The co-op coordinator visits his students on the job just as the college supervisor should visit his interns. Therefore, we could say that the college supervisor is a co-op coordinator at the higher education level.

The methods and techniques used in the internship are similar to the cooperative education student's training experience. However,

Mason and Haines discuss a very important distinction in the philosophies of the two educational experiences. They conclude that the distinction is subtle but important because it affects matters such as placement, supervision and timing of the experience. The intern has mastered the basic academic content of his profession and he has been screened for entry into the profession. During the internship he is treated as a member of the profession. On the other hand, the cooperative education student is a student-employee who is learning the procedures of the profession, on the job, while supervised by senior employees or unit supervisors. From the cooperative education student's experience comes increased skills and knowledges of the job, a better understanding of actual practice, and, hopefully, a motivation for increased performance in the classroom.[10]

Besides the "on-the-job" experience that the intern receives, other activities should be included in the total internship experience to make it as enriching as possible. Weekly seminars held at the university or at the various intern sites would enable the college supervisor to see the interns at least once-a-week to discuss any problems the interns have and also, to better coordinate the entire internship experience. The college supervisor should assign special individualized projects for the interns which are closely related to their particular program.

Leadership for the Intern

The supervising teacher is the person who will have the closest relationship with the intern during the experience, and the ultimate success of the program will depend on the supervision and guidance of

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[10]Ibid.

the supervising teacher. From the college or university's standpoint, the college supervisor is responsible for the supervision of the intern as well as coordinating the internship program with the supervising teacher-coordinator. It is impossible for these activities to be effectively coordinated without periodic visitations by the college supervisor. The college supervisor should visit the intern at least four to five times during the term to discuss and direct the internship experience.

The supervising teacher, because of his close relationship with the intern, should play a major role in the evaluation process. The student's participation in seminars and work on the individualized projects must also be considered in the evaluation. Because of the professional nature of the internship, the three parties (the college supervisor, supervising teacher, and intern) should discuss the tentative evaluation before it is finalized.

A Practitioner's Opinion

The internship should have as its major purpose the development of professional competence. It must be remembered that any internship program will take planning in order for it to be a valuable educational experience. There seems to be too many experiences in education today that lack planning and purpose. With the unprecedented growth of cooperative vocational education programs and the need for qualified teacher-coordinators, a carefully planned curriculum to prepare these individuals is essential. An internship should play a major role in this program to insure professional competence for the teacher-coordinator. This competence cannot be left to chance.

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DECISIONS AND SYSTEMS--THE ADMINISTRATOR'S DILEMMA

by
Fred L. Bierly

The Need for Systems

Today's administrator needs accurate information on a timely basis in order to carry out his duties of planning, controlling, leading, and rewarding.[1] This information, in the raw form of data, is related to attendance, inventory, space utilization, transportation, budgeting, personnel, etc. Accuracy in the collection of data in each of these areas is a prime requisite to the effectiveness of an administrator. Of course, timeliness is just as important as accuracy in the dynamic and ongoing environment of a school system. If the administrator receives information that is 100% accurate, but is one hour, one day, or one week later than required in the decision-making process, then the information is useless. Likewise, information that is always received on time, or even early, if inaccurate, is of no use whatsoever. This suggests that the school administrator must have the correct information, when he needs it, if he is to perform effectively.

Performance Improvement

The administrator's performance is also dependent upon accurate and timely information. Within any typical organizational environment, top management will be motivated toward performance improvement.[2] This is

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[1] D. R. Hampton, et al., Organizational Behavior and the Practice of Management (Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1973), p. 520.

[2] R. Glassman, "Behavioral Implications in Procedures of Management Systems Analysts." Data Management, December, 1972, 10, 12, pp. 21-23.

becoming increasingly more important in education within recent years as can be seen by the emphasis upon accountability and assessment. As stated in one of the bulletins (August, 1971) of the Pennsylvania Department of Education on Educational Quality Assessment:

> The principal aims of the Bureau of Educational Quality Assessment are to offer schools in the Commonwealth valid and reliable information pertaining to school outcomes and to identify some of the condition correlates of these outcomes.[3]

Edwards has pointed out,

> Recent developments in information theory have a common purpose--to show decision makers surer ways to attain their goals. The grand concept of business is that business consists of complicated interrelationships capable of being expressed in terms of symbolic logic. Once such a framework is constructed, the result would provide a basis for reviewing the past or taking action in the present or planning for the future.[4]

Administrators in education will find this framework as appropriate for their needs as those in any other situation. The school administrator must be able to logically interpret complex interrelationships between the effective utilization of space and personnel to meet the needs of his clients--that is, students, parents, and citizens--as well as consider budgetary, transportation, and many other factors making up the total environment in which he functions.[5] This indicates

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[3] N F Russell,"Pupil School and Community Conditions: Definition and Measurement" Educational Quality Assessment, Phase II Findings, Pennsylvania Department of Education, August, 1971.

[4] J B Edwards,"Wanted: Someone to Manage Information." Data Management, July, 1974, 12, 7, pp 22-25

[5] D. L Brubaker and R H Nelson, Jr , Creative Survival in Educational Bureaucracies (California: McCutchen Publishing Corporation, 1974) p 73

a very difficult situation in which the administrator must effectively perform.

The performance of his duties is further complicated by the dichotomy of a professional functioning within a bureaucracy. Brubaker and Nelson identify this dichotomy as follows:

> The professional is bound by a norm of service and a code of ethics to represent the welfare of his clients. The bureaucrat's foremost responsibility is to represent and promote the interests of his organization.[6]

This characteristic of a bureaucracy is often exhibited as a disregard for the client. Downs points out that,

> Bureaus adopt impersonality in dealing with their clients for two reasons. Every public or quasi-public bureau is normally instructed to give all citizens equal treatment before the law. And, bureaus must use formal rules or procedures, but formal rules are incompatible with personal treatment of clientele.[7]

Therefore, the collection of accurate and timely data to be utilized as information may thus be inhibited.

DeGreene further suggests that bureaucracies reflect Maslow's physiological needs of safety and security which represent extensions of the thought processes of their constituents.[8] Therefore, the need for information required to perform within the complicated inter-relationships of a school environment is daily being balanced against

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[6]Ibid., p. 69

[7]A. Downs, Inside Bureaucracy (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1967) p. 69

[8]K. B. DeGreene, "Systems Management of Society." Journal of Systems Management, January, 1974, 25, 1, pp. 18-25.

the need for a continuation of the bureaucracy within which the administrator must function. This conflict can be resolved through a systematic and professional approach to the administrative process.

Professional Model

The professional approach is also more oriented toward the client and his needs. This is particularly noticeable in a hospital or research institute environment where the professional is concerned primarily with the discovery and application of knowledge. In this situation he will tend to be highly flexible and individualistic in the relationship with his clients. "Doctors must be responsive to their clients as far as the general results of their services such as curing disease and maintenance of health. . ."[9] This degree of individualistic treatment will not be found in the school situation, nor will the corresponding responsibility and accountability be found there.

This professional model has not been implemented in the schools because, as government organizations, they are, by their very nature, bureaucratic.[10] This would seem to indicate that the professional approach cannot be implemented. However, Brubaker and Nelson (1974) offer an organizational model which combines the professional and bureaucratic approaches for our schools and utilizes the best of each in our school systems.[11] Using this model, the administrator can

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[9]Brubaker and Nelson, op. cit., p. 72.

[10]Ibid., p. 72.

[11]Ibid., p. 72.

develop a responsive system to meet the needs of his clients. Concomitant with the professional approach is a systematic approach to the utilization of information in the decision-making process.

Systems Model

This systems model for administration is one of a number of alternative approaches that has been implemented in recent years. Since the word "system" has such a wide range of connotations, it is advisable to be more specific and identify a useful definition. Murdick and Ross offer a definition upon which we can build a model of school systems. They suggest that,

> . . . a system is a set of elements forming an activity or a processing procedure/scheme seeking a common goal or goals by operating on data and/or energy and/or matter in a time reference to yield information and/or energy and/or matter.[12]

Although this definition may appear too broad to be of use, we shall see that it is applicable to a school situation in a number of contexts. Keeping in mind the administrator's need for accurate information on a timely basis in order to function effectively, Murdick's and Ross' definition can be stated more specifically as follows: "A system is a set of elements forming an activity seeking common goals by operating on data in a time reference to yield information." With this as the basis for a systems model in the school situation, it is now possible to identify some of the contexts in which this model might be used.

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[12] R. G. Murdick and J. E. Ross, Information Systems for Modern Management (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971), p. 7.

Use of the Systems Model

Minor uses the systems model in school psychology to replace the medical model which he suggests is in common use at the present time. He proposes that the school psychologist who uses the "medical model, where the object of study and treatment is the individual patient,"[13] does not include enough information upon which to make valid judgments in assisting his client.

> Recent developments in psychoanalytic ego psychology, general systems theory, social psychiatry, family therapy, and communication theory are beginning to merge into an ecological field within which the referring problem arose.[14]

The school psychologist, then, would use a broader base of interaction theories and referrant sets upon which to make decisions to assist his client. The administrator, in turn, would have the type of information necessary to make program decisions on a timely basis to assist the psychologist.

Of course, the systems approach in education has a much wider range of applications than school psychology. The guidance and counseling functions within a school must be especially sensitive to their client's needs. This implies not only a sensitivity to the personal needs of the student, but also the necessity for accurate and timely information on career possibilities. Career data relating to present and future opportunities in the world of work has been collected and disseminated by both state and federal agencies. This

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[13] M. W. Minor, "Systems Analysis and School Psychology." Journal of School Psychology, 1972, 10, p. 227.

[14] Ibid., p. 228.

data must be continually updated in order to provide accurate information upon which career decisions can be made. This requires a system capable of collecting accurate data on a timely basis and then disseminating this as information to the client as needed. There are many other areas in education where the information systems model can have a great deal of influence.

For instance, Danziger and Hobgood

> . . . foresee the day when all these administrative subsystems (student records, faculty and staff records, financial activities, and physical facilities) will feed information into a large data base. This data base will provide the historical information needed to support a mathematical simulation model of the university. Such a simulation model should also be able to assist in long-range forecasting of enrollments, budget requirements and facility needs.[15]

Although referring to higher education, their statement is appropriate for all levels, as can be seen by the installation of these systems in a number of school districts and intermediate units throughout Pennsylvania. And, of course, there are many other instructional systems available which provide a means of giving remedial and developmental instruction on an individual basis. As important as all of these systems are in the decision-making process, this is not meant to imply that systems are the salvation of our schools.

Misuse of Systems

Sergiovanni and Carver state emphatically that "the system analysis movement is seen by many school executives as an opportunity

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[15] E. Danziger and S. Hobgood,"The Impact of Computers on Education." In E. O. Joslin (ed.), An Introduction to Computer Systems (Washington, D. C.: College Readings, Inc., 1969), p. 164.

to regain stature, autonomy, power, and control."[16] Others try to escape reality by becoming enraptured in the system process to the detriment of effective decision-making. This creates a resistance to the system approach itself which may be difficult to overcome. Another difficulty which has been especially noticeable in the application of systems techniques is the very prominent resistance to change. Caruth, in recognizing this problem, recommends a possible solution.

> We can probably never eradicate all resistance, but we can reduce it to manageable proportions. Some people will resist change no matter what we do. On the other hand, the majority of people will come to accept change if they are allowed to participate in developing the change, if management communicates openly with them concerning change, and if they are taught to accept change as a way of life.[17]

This means the school administrator must actively encourage others to participate in the change process.

Implementing the Systems Model

Sergiovanni and Carver indicate four points which are necessary to the effective implementation of the systems approach and the resultant need for change. They suggest that,

> . . . success depends upon whether systems applications in education (1) are able to permit broad descretion at lower levels when needed; (2) can remain general enough so that we do not get bogged down in pursuing educational objectives; (3) will remain flexible enough so that

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[16] T. J. Sergiovanni and F. D. Carver, The New School Executive: A Theory of Administration (New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1973), p. 219.

[17] D. L. Caruth, "Basic Psychology for a Systems Change." Journal of Systems Management, February, 1974, 25, 2, pp. 10-13.

> feedback is not a test of success or failure of one's plans and strategies, but input which can modify present operations and if necessary reorder goals; and (4) are able to bring students, teachers, school executives, and community together . . .[18]

Holland, et al., conducted a study of socio-technical factors relating to the implementation of information systems, the result of which provide an additional solution to the problem of resistance. Their study indicated that,

> . . . users should be involved in systems design, either by a high degree of user-designer interaction during a system's design stage or by early user input so that the system designer meets user requirements.[19]

With all of this there are still many problems in applying systems concepts to education. Vaughn is the devil's advocate in pointing out many of the faults which can be found in school systems. He indicates that "lacking adequate research, the value of systems in education has its origin in matters of faith, rather than veritable fact."[20] Further, he points out "a direct one-to-one relationship between the systems model and the full scale undertaking is not always achieved."[21] He continues by suggesting that education will not succeed in implementing systems until it matches the physical and natural sciences so that "results may be analyzed, prescribed, and most important of all,

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[18]Sergiovanni and Carver, op. cit., p. 223.

[19]W. E. Holland, "Socio-technical Aspects of MIS." Journal of Systems Management, February, 1974, 25, 2, pp. 14-17.

[20]M. S. Vaughn, "Schools and Systems: Conscience or Coexistence?," Intellect, February, 1973, 101, pp. 300-301.

[21]Ibid., p. 300.

guaranteed . . ."[22] Vaughn concludes that,

> . . . some systems, unfortunately, appear designed more for advanced degrees, for a saving of taxpayers' money, or even for the payment of performance contracts than for the improvement of a child's education.[23]

And, there is much truth in what he points out to us. We have all seen systems purporting to do things which are never quite achieved, or which end up in a control function only and do not provide information for correction and improvement of the system. It does not have to be this way, however, as there are pressing educational needs which can best be met through a systems approach.

Systems and Management

One of the most important areas in education where systems can be of tremendous assistance is in the management function. Hayman agrees in his statement that "One thing most people could agree on with regard to education is the need for improved management practices and improved decision-making."[24] And Will concurs in the general case that management information systems are a necessity in every organization.[25] Hayman confirms this in stating ". . . improvement in education clearly depends on improved management practice, and this in turn depends on more effective information systems."[26]

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[22]Ibid., p. 300.

[23]Ibid., p. 301.

[24]J. L. Hayman, Jr.,"Educational Management Information Systems for the Seventies." Educational Administration Quarterly, Winter, 1974, 10, pp. 60-71.

[25]H. J. Will,"MIS: Mirage or Mirror Image?" Journal of Systems Management, September, 1973, 24, 9, pp. 24-31.

[26]Hayman, op. cit., p. 60.

These systems must do more than just store information for later use. They must be capable of delivering this information when the user needs it. The information needed will include that which is available from a cost and accounting system utilized for every educational program. Of course, the administrator must balance the expense of getting the information against the utility derived from that information. The measure of the meaning of information for the user "comes by balancing the improvement in the user's behavior as a result of having the information against the cost of gaining the information."[27] The primary emphasis here is on the results of the system, not the system itself. It is important to note that the administrator "does not have to understand how an informative system works, only how to use it."[28] That is a critical point to keep in mind as systems become more popular in education - the administrator must use the system in the decision-making process.

There are other advantages to a systems approach in addition to getting information for decision-making on a timely basis. Rozik and Elsie list them as follows:

1. A way of viewing large problems within a productive perspective.
2. The effective organization of the parts into meaningful systems for dealing with problems.
3. The effective application of resources based on alternative organizations.

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[27]Hayman, op. cit., p. 71.

[28]J. Dearden, et al., Managing Computer-Based Information Systems, (Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1971), p. 406.

4. A context for understanding the constraints imposed upon the institutional structure of education.

5. A group of planning techniques which makes possible large-scale, long-range planning.

6. An interdisciplinary, problem-oriented approach to research and development.[29]

Taking all of these factors into account, one can see the advisability of the school administrator seriously considering the systems orientation in his approach to solving school problems.

Summary

Improved resource allocation for the educational system is necessary in order to get more learning for each dollar spent.

> Using the available resources to build complete rather than fragmented systems for educational technology at all levels - elementary, secondary, and post-secondary - would provide for the most effective use of these resources.[30]

As Berg points out,

> Education is being measured by results. No longer is it simply a matter of measuring attendance against revenue - success or failure is being determined on the basis of fulfilling pre-established, measurable criteria. The results-oriented, systems approach is proving that it has a lot to offer in the field of education.[31]

It will be the administrator's responsibility to take what is offered and put it to use in a manner appropriate for his needs. Furthermore, he must be certain that correct information is available on a timely

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[29] T. A. Rozik and L. J. Elsie,"Systems Approach Theory in Education." Journal of Industrial Teacher Education, Spring, 1973, 10, 3, pp. 7-25.

[30] D. Henderson,"More Learning for Educational Dollar." Journal of Systems Management, March, 1973, 10, 3, pp. 22-27.

[31] R. D. Berg,"Systems Help Educational Planning and Control." Journal of Systems Management, December, 1970, 21, 12, pp. 8-14.

basis in order to make the hard decisions required in the dynamic environment of a school system. This capability is enhanced by the effective use of the systems process in decision-making.

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INITIATIVE IN TEACHER EDUCATION: TIME IS RUNNING OUT

by
Kurt Eschenmann

Teacher Bias and Influence

A major barrier to educational fulfillment confronting today's secondary vocational student is identified in the following quotation:

> . . . there is an inherent bias of many teachers, elementary through university. This bias reflects the attitude that success is achieved by the acquisition of academic content which is not occupationally relevent[1]

While the presence of such teacher centered bias is cause for concern, the identification of these bias is not enough. They must be removed from the classroom. The initiative should be assumed by teacher education institutions. Since this action has not occurred, vocational educators must press for this change immediately and on a wider front.

The part-time area vocational-technical school (AVTS) dominates Pennsylvania's approach to secondary vocational education. Under this plan the secondary vocational student receives general education instruction at his home school and vocational instruction at an area vocational school. Realizing that teacher bias reflecting negative attitudes toward vocational education do exist, some vocational educators feel that a studen's exposure to an environment stressing a dual educational philosophy may prove detrimental to his total learning achievement.

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[1]Keith Goldhammer and Robert B. Taylor, Career Education: perspectives and Promise (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1972), p. 187.

At the resident school, the vocational student is exposed to an educational philosophy which is academically oriented, while vocational instructors stress a philosophy oriented toward occupational competencies. These two differing philosophies can cause serious identity problems for the student. All too frequently the identity problem may be reflected by the student in low academic achievement and poor classroom behavior.

Some educators agree that classroom teachers influence the attitudes of their students through their classroom behaviors (Webb, 1971). This influence, either positive or negative, is one determinant of students' future academic and social behavior. If the non-vocational educator reflects attitudes favorable toward vocational students and vocational education, these students will have a tendency to view their curriculums in a similar fashion. Unfortunately, negative teacher attitudes toward vocational education can have an equal impact, moreso a stigma effect. "These attitudes tend to stigmatize both individuals and programs having goals related to the world of work with the exception of those occupations classified as the professionals"[2] Teacher attitudes may be of minor importance to many teacher educators. If they understand that not only does a teacher's attitude directly affect his personal behavior, but that ". . . the way a teacher behaves, not what he knows, may be the most important issue in the transmission of the teaching-learning exchange,"[3] this issue may become one of importance. Considering that

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[2]Ibid.

[3]Dwight Webb, "Teacher Sensitivity: Affective Impact on Students," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XXII, No. 4, Winter, 1971, p. 455.

many teacher-centered influences remain with students for the rest of their lives, the attitudes which non-vocational educators reflect toward vocational students in their classes cannot be left to chance.

The Role of Vocational Education

Vocational student enrollment has increased rapidly in the last 10 years. Great numbers of vocational students are also found in non-vocational classrooms. Recent technological and economic demands upon our society have brought about these increases in student enrollment. The popularity of vocational education and its value lie in its ability to satisfy three closely related manpower needs.

First, vocational education is a partner in meeting the basic manpower needs of our nation. But other organizations also help in meeting these needs, and vocational education cannot accept full credit in the event that all employable people are successful in finding work. Accordingly, the recently rising unemployment does not reflect the failure of vocational education.

Second, vocational education, in helping to meet the first basic need, has increased the vocational options available to students. As technology demands increasing numbers of individuals who possess new and different occupational skills, vocational education has provided the necessary training. This provision is extremely important if we are to ensure that our program will continue to keep pace with our nation's technological advances.

Third, vocational programs utilize general education offerings to provide the individual with both general education and vocational skill development.[4]

The number of jobs requiring a baccalaureate degree has been steadily decreasing. This decreased demand for individuals who possess the college degree has been replaced by a demand for individuals which acquire two year associate degrees or their equivalents. In spite of these projections, the following evidence seems to indicate that the pursuit of the baccalaureate degree is still a strong societal desire:

a. Almost 80 percent of secondary school students are enrolled in either the college preparatory or general education curriculum designed to ready them for college attendance. When 80 percent are readying themselves to do what 80 percent will not be able to do, something is surely wrong.

b. Almost three in four community college students are enrolled in the college transfer program in spite of the fact that fewer than one in four will ever attain the baccalaureate degree.

c. Over 60 percent of all Vietnam veterans now using their educational benefits are enrolled in four-year college or university programs.[5]

Present Trends in Teacher Education

The nature of student enrollment in teacher education curriculums is important to consider for two reasons. First, the majority of students who attend colleges or universities are the products of either high school college preparatory or general education curriculums which are designed for college admission. We can assume that high school

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[4]Kenneth B. Hoyt, Career Education: What it is and How to do it (Salt Lake City, Utah: Olympus Publishing Company, 1967).

[5]Thomas E. Long (ed.), Essays on Career Education (University Park, Pennsylvania: The Pennsylvania State University, 1973), p. 3.

vocational students who meet requirements for college admission will comprise a minority of the total college student body. Second, most high schools have their schedules, courses, and curriculums structured in such a way that the college and vocationally oriented students are academically and socially separated in the school environment. It is a fair assumption that the majority of those college students who enter the teacher education curriculum (and later the profession) lack understanding and acceptance of vocational education and its purposes.

Students can gain an understanding of vocational education before they accept a teaching position in two ways: through independent investigation; or as part of their college curriculums. The former is a possibility while the latter, according to all indications, seems extremely unlikely. Teacher education institutions are not presently noted for their interest in vocational education. "Components of teacher education programs are often determined by departmental traditions."[6] It is unfortunate that this tradition does not include a course (or understanding of) vocational education. To vocational educators, these "traditional" teacher education practices are inadequate. Thousands of new teachers are being placed yearly in the nation's secondary schools with little understanding of vocational education theory. These numbers increase substantially when we consider those teachers already in the classroom. How will these teachers, products of academically oriented curriculums, view the vocational student? Will they understand student capabilities and interests? Will they attempt to present creative and

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[6]George E. Dickson and Richard W. Saxe, Partners for Educational Reform and Renewal (Berkley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1973), p. 13.

interesting learning experiences? Will teachers bore themselves and their students with irrelevant classroom lectures? The psychological and academic damage a non-vocational educator could inflict upon a vocational student is monumental. We must assure that such damage does not occur. To do this, we will need changes in the present nature and conduct of teacher preparation.

High School Environments and Teacher Attitudes

The nature and composition of the high school is another significant factor which must be considered when viewing this topic. Kaufman (1967)[7] suggested that the type of school in which the teacher was employed (general, comprehensive or vocational) could be an indicator of the non-vocational teachers' attitude toward vocational education and vocational students. Of the vocational teachers employed at vocational schools, 78 percent expressed attitudes favorable toward vocational education. Sixty-eight percent of the academic teachers at the vocational high school held attitudes favorable toward vocational education. Thirty-one percent of the secondary non-vocational teachers employed in the academic high school reflected attitudes favorable toward vocational education. The lowest attitudes recorded were expressed by the academic teachers in comprehensive high schools. In this category only 26 percent of those teachers felt that vocational curriculums were worthy of recognition. Four reasons contributed to their poor attitudes. First, they were not impressed by the quality of the vocational graduates. Second, academic teachers felt that the presence of a quality vocational program would not

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[7] Jacob J. Kaufman, et al, The Role of the Secondary Schools (University Park, Pennsylvania: The Pennsylvania State University, 1967).

attract industry into the area. Third, they felt the vocational student lacked scholarly achievement. Fourth, they felt that the student should not take vocational training so early in life.[8] These attitudes are typical of how the academic teachers, products of our teacher education curriculums, tend to view the vocational students in their class. How can we expect the vocational student to take pride in not only himself, but his work as well when such negative attitudes are considered to be typical of the adult academic world? The answer is simple, we cannot.

Needs Dictated by Present Trends

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the amendments of 1968 clearly indicate that vocational education is not removed from the rest of education. "Separatism must end, and occupational education must be an integral part of all education at all levels."[9] This spirit must be applied to not only the high schools of America but the colleges and universities as well. What we need are new ideas in teacher education programs which promote theories and concepts of vocational education. We must encourage active participation by all sectors of education. It is not enough that the secondary non-vocational teacher recognize this problem. They must become actively involved in bringing about these changes.

Unless a college or university has a vocational teachers education program, graduates entering the teaching profession have had no

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[8] Ibid.

[9] Robert L. Simonds, A Planning Statement: Vocational Education Opportunities for Alaskans (Fairbanks, Alaska: Alaska Department of Education, 1970), p. 9.

undergraduate courses in vocational education. We must thus assume that the deans of education are not responsible to, or aware of, the need for such required courses. If they were, the majority of our teacher education institutions would require all teacher education majors to successfully complete at least one course in the principles of vocational education The lack of such courses in college and university curriculums must lead us to the assumption that teacher educators have not taken the initiative. Consequently, we as vocational educators must press for these needed changes immediately!

The negative attitudes of academic teachers who confront vocational students loom as insurmountable barriers to educational fulfillment. While this situation may seem hopeless, there is a workable solution. Georgiady (1973) conducted a study to identify and explore causes of probable negative teacher attitudes toward vocational education and to develop means for assisting teachers in forming less biased attitudes.[10] He found that those teachers who expressed negative attitudes toward vocational education did so due to a lack of vocational understanding. These teachers did not understand either the purpose or basic philosophy of vocational education. The successful completion of a "mini" course on vocational theory and philosophy as well as the world of work brought about more favorable results. Georgiady's study suggests that the solution to solving these teacher-centered biases may be in exposing teachers to courses which will give them an understanding of vocational

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[10]Nicholas P. Georgiady, "A Research Study in the Development of Affecting Means of Altering the Attitudes of Elementary School Teachers Toward Vocational Education," Research Project Conducted at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio; June 1972 (Washington, D.C.: United States Office of Education, 1972).

education. Teacher education institutions could aid in reducing these biased attitudes by implementing required vocational education "mini" courses into their traditional curriculums. Those teachers already in the classroom could receive their instruction in these courses through in-service programs.

> . . . teacher education institutions must be sensitive to the needs of the practitioner, help the practitioner plan for appropriate experiences, and then provide those experiences as efficiently as possible whenever they fall within institutional capability and capacity.[11]

If 80 percent of the jobs in the future will require less than a four-year college degree, 80 percent of the high school student body should actively consider some type of vocational occupation as a possible career choice.[12] It seems only logical that the non-vocational teacher have some understanding of the needs of 80 percent of his class. A student's classroom instruction should relate closely to his future goals and ambitions. The vocational student's instruction should relate to the world of work. If educators accept the idea that a teacher cannot teach what he does not know, then this proposed curriculum change seems even more necessary.

Teacher education institutions must remember that the college student, like his younger elementary and secondary counterparts, needs in his educational program a wider range of skills, interests, and aptitudes.[13]

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[11]Rupert N. Evans and David R. Terry (eds.), Changing the Role of Vocational Teacher Education (Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnoght Publishing Company, 1957), pp. 67-68.

[12]Long, loc. cit.

[13]Harold M. Byram and Ralph Wenrich, Vocational Education and Practical Arts in the Community School (New York: The MacMillian Company, 1956).

Through the implementation of a required vocationally oriented course in the teacher education curriculum, individuals, regardless of their previous training and attitude, can become more understanding of the vocational student in their classes.

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NEW TWISTS AND MODERNIZATION: "RIP-OFFS" TO VOCATIONAL TRADITION

by
Edgar Farmer

A Chronicle Review - Over a Half Century of Service

Vocational education is a major part of the total education necessary for the development of the people comprising our democratic society. The area vocational-technical schools' programs provide the opportunity for the greatest possible development of individuals from all sectors of society.

An examination of AVTS programs gives rise to several questions. 1) What are the needs, interests, and abilities of the students enrolled in most vocational-technical schools? 2) What innovations or modifications are needed to provide a better vocational-technical program? 3) What occupational opportunities are available for students enrolled in vocational courses? It is the purpose of this paper to consider the implications of each question and to suggest possible answers.

The development of curricula to meet the needs of students with varied backgrounds and interests in vocational-technical schools is a complex task. It involves a knowledge of the learning processes, of the demands created by technological change, of industrial and businesses practices, and of the needs of the students themselves.

Vocational education must work to provide such curricula. "To respond to human needs, to transform study into action; this is what many students long to do."[1]

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[1] "A Curricular Approach to Community Service," Today's Education Magazine, September-October edition, 1973, p. 38.

It is understood that a vocational skill becomes a more valuable asset when properly balanced with academic achievement; therefore, students are encouraged to supplement their vocational training with academic studies that are related and necessary for the development of competence in their vocational interests.

"Each generation gives new form to the aspirations that shape education in its time."[2] These aspirations may also be expressed as interests in various programs or courses. The vocational interests of today's high school students are far greater than ever before. The younger generation has shifted from college-oriented programs to vocational-technical programs.

There has been a tremendous amount of interest shown by students toward vocational education. This interest has been illustrated by the increasing number of vocational youth organizations, exhibits, and contests that are conducted every year by most vocational-technical schools. For example, each year the Vocational-Industrial Clubs of America (VICA) sponsor local, regional, and national contests which are hosted by various vocational-technical schools.

Level of Abilities

The level of mental abilities of students attending the vocational-technical schools varies from I.Q.'s of 65 to 110 and above. There are many slow learners in the vocational-technical schools, and there are many gifted students. However, all students--regardless of their abilities--are made aware from the beginning of the program that they can excell in a vocational oriented curriculum.

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[2]Jerome S. Bruner, The Process of Education (New York: Vintage Books, 1963), p. 1.

Innovations and Modifications In Vocational-Technical Education

There are many recent curriculum innovations focused on subject matter. "Changes in content, ideas, or symbols may involve gross modifications in the content or approach of an existing course or program or a minor change in a single unit. It may involve the addition of something new or the displacement of something which was formerly in the curriculum."[3]

Industrial education programs at the secondary school level emerged out of a period of innovation and change during the years from 1880 to 1910. "It was during this time that such terms as manual training, manual arts, industrial arts, vocational education, and industrial education were widely used. For the next 50 years, however, industrial educators were able to stifle most creative attempts at strengthening the profession."[4]

Another innovation in the vocational education curriculum has been the growing emphasis in early career education programs. Some of these programs are operating on the junior high school level. Early career awareness has brought about a new dimension in vocational education.

"Career awareness programs will have great impact on the vocational education curriculum. Students will be more knowledgeable about careers

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[3]"The Process of Innovation," National Education Journal (May edition, 1967, National Education Association, Washington, D.C.), p. 28.

[4]"Innovation: A New Direction for Industrial Arts," Industrial Arts and Vocational Education (December edition, 1969, Crowell, Collier and MacMillan, Inc., Greenwich, Connecticut), p. 22.

and career options."[5] And as they become more aware of the broad career spectrum, they will be more likely to request vocational education in areas other than those traditionally taught.

Possibly the greatest innovation is the shifting from norm-referenced to criterion-referenced types of measurement. "Norm-referenced tests were used in the past to measure a student's performance against the performance of other students. Criterion-referenced tests measure a student's status against an established standard of performance."[6]

Vocational teachers are now beginning to evaluate curriculum results against a specific criterion or performance standard.

Finally, vocational-technical education has been innovated in other ways, such as the building of more area vocational-technical schools throughout the United States offering more up-to-date vocational courses, and providing more modern and sophisticated equipment.

Occupational Opportunities Available to Vocational Students

The job opportunities that are available to students with a vocational skill are numerous; skilled workers are needed to fill the job market. A reprint from the 1971 Occupational Handbook stated that:

> There are approximately 620,000 people employed in the metal machine occupations including all around machinists, set-up men, and tool and die makers. During the next decade, there will be a demand for approximately 20,000 new skilled craftsmen in these areas each year. Today, there are approximately 480,000 welders employed. The demand for new welders will be about 23,000 a year.[7]

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[5]"A Really Unique Approach to Vocational Education," School Shop Magazine (October edition, 1972, Ann Arbor, Michigan), p. 21.

[6]Patrick J. Weagraff, "Innovations in Vocational Curriculum," American Vocational Journal (October edition, 1973, American Vocational Association, Inc., Washington, D.C.), p. 20.

[7]John L. Feirer, "Relevancy and Occupational Education," Industrial Arts-Vocational Education (February edition, 1971, CCM Professional Magazine, Inc.), p. 19.

Employment opportunities in the building trades were greater than in any other trade However, because of the present condition in the economy, the building construction trades are in an economic slump. This may be due to the rapid decrease in building construction. Nevertheless, employment is also expected to increase in the building trades during the late 1970's. This can be done assuming that full employment is national and that there are levels of economic activity. If the high levels of economic activity are not achieved, employment in the building trades will increase at a slower rate.

In addition to employment growth, thousands of job openings will result from the need to replace experienced workers who transfer to other fields of work. "Retirement and deaths alone will provide more than 70,000 job openings in the building trades each year through the late 1970's."[8]

The rates of employment growth will differ among the various building trades. Employment growth is expected to be most rapid for glaziers, structural-metal workers, excavators, graders, and cement masons. Some of the trades that will have a slower growth rate are stonemasonry, carpentry, and painting.

Creation and Delivery

Vocational education began in 1914 with the sincere dedication of two men from Georgia--Senator Hoke Smith and Representative D. M. Hughes. These two men were appointed by President Woodrow Wilson to form a commission and to conduct a study for national aid to vocational education.

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[8]"Employment Outlook," A Reprint from the Occupational Outlook Handbook (1970-71 edition, U.S. Department of Labor), p. 4.

The commission made a final report to the President in 1917, and seven major issues were discussed: 1) The need for vocational education; 2) the need for national grants to the states for vocational education; 3) the kinds of vocational education for which national grants should be given; 4) aid to vocational education through federal agencies; 5) the extent to which the national government should aid vocational education; 6) the conditions under which grants for vocational education should be given; and 7) proposed legislation.

> The commission found that public sentiment showed the need for vocational education; that an urgent social and educational need existed; and that national grants were necessary because the problem was too large to be worked out on a local basis; the states varied widely in their ability to carry the cost of vocational education. They also recommended that grants be given for stimulating vocational education and for the training of teachers; for partial payment of the salaries of teachers, supervisors and directors and for the support of a Federal board for making studies and investigation useful in vocational schools. The school thus aided should be publicly supported and controlled and should be of less than college grade.[9]

The Smith-Hughes Act was established February 23, 1917 to provide financial assistance to persons choosing a vocational course or program. The Act provided funds for the training of students at the secondary level. These students were trained so that they would be able to gain employment at the job entry level.

Employment of students in their particular occupations is of vital importance to a good vocational program as stated by Dr. Brewer, a vocational educator. He outlined six basic steps to a good vocational-technical education. They are: "1) Study of the occupation; 2) study

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[9]Melvin L. Barlow, History of Industrial Education in the United States (Peoria, Illinois: Charles A. Bennett Co., Inc., 1967), p. 61.

of the individual; 3) collection of the occupation; 4) preparation for the occupation; 5) placement in the occupation; and 6) upgrading in the occupation."[10]

The effort for occupational placement has been very good in the construction areas. Occupational placement is especially good in the brick mason's trade. This particular trade was noticed because of the increasing demand for bricklayers and apprentices. More students are attracted to this trade because, "In pay, bricklayers are the highest in the building trades."[11]

Conclusion

The purpose of the paper was to give public school administrators and vocational education teachers some suggestions of how to "rip-off" or get rid of traditions that are no longer relevant in their particular vocational curriculum. The rip-off methods used are the innovative and modification techniques.

There are many innovative techniques presently on the market that can be used. Most innovative curriculums are flexible and effective for students, but some traditional curriculums are boring and, in most cases, outdated.

Some of the major issues discussed in the paper were the interests and abilities of students in the vocational-technical schools and pertinent data on innovations and modifications in vocational-technical

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[10]"Needed: Placement Directors for Vocational-Technical Programs," Industrial Education Magazine (May/June edition, 1973, MacMillan Professional Magazines, Inc.), p. 23.

[11]Sydney H. Kasper, Careers in the Building Trades (New York: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 1969), p. 38.

education. Some of the innovations and modifications discussed were curriculum changes in the course content, ideas, and instructional materials. The career education program was also discussed in terms of introducing the student to the world of work. The career education concept was also related to the early career awareness programs. Another issue discussed was the occupational opportunities available to vocational students in the building trades.

Finally, the time to initiate the "rip-off" is now--during the celebration of the United States Bicentennial. Vocational educators should start the next 100 years with the latest innovations in their programs.

Some vocational educators are saying with general consensus that there is a place for irrelevant traditions in the curriculum--the graveyard!

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WOMENS' RIGHTS AND CHANGES IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

by
Chester P. Wichowski

Introduction

As our country approaches its Bicentennial, much activity is directed toward reviewing life styles of the past. The role of women is one of the more obvious changes in life style in comparison with the present.

Although some of our nation's colonial ancestors might be greatly surprised, if not shocked, to be exposed to our present day society, at least one might be pleased to see progress toward the satisfaction of some of her concerns:

> I long to hear that you declared an independency. And, by the way, in the new code of laws which I suppose it will be necessary for you to make, I desire you would remember the ladies and be more generous and favorable to them then your ancestors. Do not put such unlimited power into the hands of their husbands. Remember, all men would be tyrants if they could. If particular care and attention is not paid to the ladies, we are determined to foment a rebellion, and will not hold ourselves bound by any laws in which we have no voice or representation.
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> From correspondence of Abigail Adams to her husband John Adams, 1776

The hopes and concerns of Mrs. Adams are, of course, still in the process of realization in 1975. Much of this progress, however, has been the result of federal intervention.

A Relationship

A relationship exists between federal intervention, womens' rights, and education. Particular to this relationship is the role of vocational education. Regardless of the form federal intervention may take;

amendments, acts, or executive orders; social change will remain a slow process. To effectively permit women to apply these newly declared rights to their lives, modification of social values and institutions will be required. Education for entry into the world of work and especially entry into occupations not previously considered within the feminine domain will be a vital part of such modification. The Presidential Task Force on Women's Rights and Responsibilities in their 1969 report concluded: ". . . that discrimination in education is one of the most damaging injustices women suffer. It denies them equal education and equal employment opportunity, contributing to a second class self-image."[1]

The role of vocational education is clear; it must become involved in responding to the occupational needs of women students. Before the role of vocational education can be discussed, it will be necessary to provide an overview of federal legislation and executive orders concerning womens rights.

Federal Legislation

The Nineteenth Amendment to the Constitution provided voting rights for women. Alice Paul established the National Women's Party to provide the necessary support needed to move this Amendment through Congress in 1919. Under her leadership in 1923, another major piece of legislation was introduced to Congress for the first time. With little variation from its original form, this legislation was to become the Equal Rights Amendment to the constitution which was finally passed in 1972.

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[1]Robin Dorr, "Education and Women's Rights," Education Digest, March 1973, p. 9.

"Presently, this Amendment requires ratification by five additional states before it becomse a part of the Constitution."[2] Once the ratification is completed, the Amendment will become legally active in one year. This particular Amendment will perhaps become as important a landmark in the women's rights movement as was the Nineteenth Amendment which permitted women's suffrage.

The history behind the final passage of the Equal Rights Amendment is quite interesting. Categorically, most of the arguments against the Amendment were based upon protective or discriminatory issues. Many states have labor regulations restricting the amount of weight to be lifted or the number of consecutive hours standing a woman at work might do. "Extreme to this debate is the question of women being conscripted into the armed service and the possibility of their combat duty."[3]

The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 established a base for wages paid to persons working in interstate commerce or in the production of goods for commerce. The wording of this Act did not include masculine of feminine gender, but rather the ambiguous use of "persons." "Insignificant as it might at first seem, this departure from traditional phrasing in the past represented a breakthrough in the cause for women's rights."[4]

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[2]Howard Flieger (ed.), "The Drive to Open Up More Careers for Women." U.S. News and World Report, March 26, 1973, p. 44.

[3]John Shields (ed.), "Controversy Over the Equal Rights for Women Amendment," Congressional Digest, January 1971, p. 3.

[4]Ibid, p. 4.

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 amended the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 by prohibiting employers from discriminating on the basis of sex in the payment of wages for jobs requiring equal skill. The earlier legislation did not contain this specific identification.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits discrimination by sex as well as by race, color, religion, or national origin for private employment. Also included in this legislation is the prohibition of discriminatory practices by employment agencies and labor organizations. In addition to regulations prohibiting discrimination in employment, restrictions were extended to training, re-training, apprenticeship, and various on-the-job training programs offered by labor organizations and employers. "The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, composed of five Presidential appointees can file civil action against employers who violate this Act."[5]

Financial strings can be traced more directly to Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972. This Title prohibits sex discrimination in schools at all levels which receive federal support. "The effects of this legislation will cause policy revisions in admissions, scholarships, and course offerings."[6] By law a student cannot be denied any educational opportunities because of sex.

Similar regulation can be observed in the Comprehensive Health Manpower Training Act of 1971. This Act permits women equal access to education in areas of medicine, dentistry, veterinary medicine, pharmacy,

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[5]Robin Dorr, "Education and Women's Rights," American Education, December 1972, p. 6.

[6]Ibid., p. 6.

public health, or any area of allied health. "The penalty for sex discrimination under this Act is the loss of all federal funds by the violating school."[7]

This brief overview concludes the section on Legislative Action. Additional background information will be presented in a short section on some recent Executive Orders affecting women's rights.

Executive Orders

Financial regulation is noted in Executive Order no. 11246, issued by President Johnson in September of 1965. This Order forbids all federal contractors and sub-contractors (including educational institutions) from discriminating in employment practices because of race, color, religion, or national origin. In 1967, Executive Order no. 11375 amended the previous Order which prohibited discrimination by sex. "As a result of Order no. 11375, any institution holding government contracts risks loss of that contract through the practice of sex discrimination in employment practices."[8]

On August 8, 1969, President Nixon issued Executive Order no. 11478 which modified Orders 11246 and 11375 to include

> It is the policy of the Government of the United States to provide equal opportunity in federal employment for all persons, to prohibit discrimination in employment because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, and to promote the full realization of equal employment opportunity through a continuing affirmative program in each executive department and agency. This policy of equal opportunity applies to and must be an integral part

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[7]Ibid., p. 9.

[8]Ibid., p. 7.

> of every aspect of personnel policy and practice in the employment, development, advancement and treatment of civilian employees of the Federal Government."[9]

A forerunner to the above Executive Order is the Civil Rights Act of 1964. It should be noted that Title VII of this act prohibits discrimination in private employment because of race, color, sex, religion and national origin, while these same practices were not prohibited in federal contract or federal employment until 1965, 1967 and 1969 by Executive Orders.

Discussion

These Acts, Orders and Amendments were designed to correct discrimination which exist in our society. A focus must be directed toward education as a key element in correcting these conditions. Legislation is fine, however, it is only the first step in that it recognizes and provides for some control over the problem. Social change, however slow, can be accelerated through a focus on selected priority areas in education.

Vocational education in particular has the responsibility to offer occupational skills to women. This education can be considered at several levels: pre-vocational at the elementary and middle school level, vocational at the secondary school and post-secondary school level, and continuing vocational at these same levels for women who may be re-entering the labor force.

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[9]John Shields (ed.), "Controversy Over the Equal Rights for Women Amendment," Congressional Digest, January 1971, p. 8.

The abandonment of sex-typed occupations during World War II illustrated that women were capable of performing jobs previously reserved for men. This illustration did much to defeat the argument that women needed protection (by legislation if necessary) while at work. Even though the expanded capabilities of women at work have been demonstrated during these years, social change toward them has not yet been fully achieved. "Through comparing women at work between 1950 and 1970, little change has been recognized by some authors; women at work have been restricted to specific job classifications, i.e., women's work."[10] Of our country's 80 million women, only 30 million are gainfully employed. "These women, 20 years and older, account for approximately one-third of the work force and are to a large degree employed in menial, sex-typed, or dead-end jobs."[11]

The occupational self concept and the traditional attitudes of society concerning women who work are two reasons why discrimination and present set typing persist. A pre-vocational orientation must become an integrated activity at the elementary and middle school levels for all students. A unisex approach to vocations should be considered as the only effective approach to altering the attitudes of both men and women. All teachers must be given a sound orientation to these concepts as well as a background in methods to integrate these concepts into their classroom activities.

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[10]Howard Flieger (ed.), "The Drive to Open Up More Careers for Women," U.S. News and World Report, March 26, 1973, p. 8.

[11]Clare Booth Luce, "Women, A Technological Castaway," Saturday Evening Post, January 1974, p. 18.

Further research in vocational and career development theory is required to provide a sound base for these endeavors. Much of the career development research in the past by Super, Ginsberg, and Roe was from data collected from a male population. "These theories cannot effectively be applied to the occupational behavior of women or young girls in our society."[12]

Without providing a proper orientation to the world of work at the early years, educators are in effect, endorcing a quasi form of sex discrimination which might effect the choice of vocational subjects at advanced levels and subsequent entry into the job market. Traditional subjects for women such as home economics, office and business occupations, distribution, or health occupations do not provide enough alternatives if an integrated approach is to be offered using a prevocational orientation. Expansion of other vocational subjects is necessary to assist the newly oriented student.

More women are re-entering the labor force at a later point in their lives. Once family-raising responsibilities are completed, a second career may begin. Previous education must be updated to conform to the changing requirements of our technological society. In addition, continuing vocational education must be offered to satisfy the changing needs of these students. Coordination between education and other social services is essential if these final stages are to be completed. Day care facilities as well as unemployment compensation during periods of education to re-enter the labor force should be considered as an approach to enhance this process.

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[12]Louise Vetter, "Planning Ahead for the World of Work," American Vocational Journal, December 1970, p. 28.

Although all of the discussion to this point has been directed toward the changing role of women in our society, it should be noted that as a result of this change, the role of man will also be changing. The near future may hold as many surprises for members of our present day society as might be experienced by a visit from a colonial America time traveler. It is hoped that vocational educators will have the foresight and creativity to help formulate changes in the educational spectrum of the future. These modifications are a necessity to insure a productive and healthy adjustment for all members of society in the years to come.

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CROSSING THE BRIDGE TO THE WORLD OF WORK

by
Joseph P. Saam

For a large number of today's students, the public school system represents a maze of meaningless exercises leading nowhere. Students fail to see the relationship between their school experience and their future occupational activity. A study published by the U. S. Office of Education reveals the irrelevance and lack of specific purpose which education has to offer our youth today.[1] The study indicates that for every ten pupils in the fifth grade in 1957-58: 9.4 entered the ninth grade in 1961-62, 8.1 entered the eleventh grade in 1963-64, 7.1 graduated from high school in 1965, 3.8 were expected to enter college in the fall of 1965, and 1.9 would likely earn a baccalaureate degree in 1969. These statistics include the full range of intelligence levels and are not restricted to that group of slow learners or socially disadvantaged who are normally considered drop-outs.

Indications are that work is the next step beyond high school for approximately fifty (50) percent of our students. This transition from school to work is far too important to be left to chance. Studies reveal that students are not receiving the required assistance in obtaining the basic information necessary for understanding and planning educational and occupational goals.[2] The number of students that

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[1]Vance W. Grant, "Statistic of the Month," American Education, July-August, 1965.

[2]Warren D. Gibbons and Paul R. Lohnes, Emerging Careers (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1968).

enter but fail to complete college indicates that the college bound group would also benefit from extensive occupational and career development information during its high school exposure. "Education at any level should be evaluated in terms of the extent to which students are prepared for and are assisted in taking the next step."[3]

The many changes in today's complex industrial society deem it necessary for the educational systems to initiate activities to meet the career development needs of students.

In the not so distant past, the traditional means for the adolescent to become knowledgeable about occupational activities was through the home or observation of an open community at work. Many sons and daughters followed their parents' occupations or worked as apprentices to friends in the community. With the passing of the agrarian culture, this opportunity has been lost to most young people. With the complexity of business and industry, most work is done behind brick walls and wire fences. As a result, many students have little or no knowledge about even their parents' occupations. Work is becoming less a part of our young people's lives. The results indicate that many students are required to make career choices or enter occupational activity without adequate and realistic knowledge about available jobs, without the work attitudes and industrial discipline necessary for job success, without being familiar with the tools, materials and processes of a work setting, and without the cognitive skills necessary to perform

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[3]Gene Bottoms, "Career Development Education K Through Post-Secondary and Adult Education," Georgia State Department of Education, Atlanta Division of Vocational Education, 1971.

in an occupation. A large percentage of today's high school students are unable to hold basic entry level jobs because they lack these skills. Furthermore many students doubt the Puritan work ethic, while others question the need for work at all in our technological society.

> As our society has progressed from a simple to an exceedingly complex society, we have virtually eliminated the traditional means by which adolescents develop into working adults. In former years youth were constantly surrounded by and early involved in work.[4]

To give more students the opportunity to understand the working world, the walls of the classroom must be extended to include community occupational activities. No longer can we deny students the kinds of experiences that, in the past, were a natural part of growing up.

There are many additional factors which have a demonstrative effect on the students' chances of survival without proper training and a chance to develop acceptable work habits. The nature of many occupations is placing greater emphasis on the cognitive and affective aspects of a task and less on the motor skills. Blue collar jobs that require less than a high school education, have been on the decrease; as a result, students applying for these jobs must be better prepared. Another factor that the newcomer to the work force must understand and be able to cope with is the continued technological change and the need for training and retraining to keep abreast of working situations.

New Planks for the Bridge

Societal changes have made it imperative that the school accept the responsibility for systematically preparing the individual to enter the world of work.

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[4] Ibid., p.6

> It would be a mistake to assume that identified student needs can be met through any attempt less than a restructuring of all aspects of the school environment including both the content and processes of education. Vocational educators should avoid allowing themselves to believe that they can meet the needs of students while the remainder of the school stays like it is. In my opinion, they will fail miserably unless their effort is merged with that of the total school. Identified student needs are not unique to career development nor are they new for they are and have been for some time a central part of our educational rhetoric in our attempt to develop the whole individual. To meet these needs will require educators, including vocational educators who are willing to make the students their primary commitment and to make secondary their commitment to a particular type of education, setting, discipline, subject matter content, process of specialization.[5]

One way to make the school experience relevant to a larger portion of the student body is to develop the curriculum around a career or occupational development theme. This can be done by integrating the academic, vocational and guidance programs with the available community resources, and by developing academic programs that enhance and relate to the students' occupational aspirations. The total school should create an environment in which all students can obtain the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary for career development.

Occupational education, a functional part of a career education program, is a process and cannot be considered as another course. Career goals and work attitudes are the major objectives of the program, and it must be administered as an orderly system designed to produce a measurable result in the student's understanding of the world of work.

Current literature indicates that K-12 is the most desirable route to initiate the program; but in many situations, as pointed out

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[5]Ibid., p.8.

by M. W. Roney, the occupational development theory can be successfully commenced as a capstone project for the structured vocational program and the general cooperative education program.[6]

We find many students working in the eleventh or twelfth year of their educational experience without a sound knowledge of basic occupational information. Programs complimentary to career education that deal with general related occupational information can easily be implemented at the high school level, integrated into the existing academic situation, and then be expanded to the lower grades as they prove successful. In this manner, instruction at the lower grade levels can be developed with a better understanding of the needs of industry. This in turn will help students with their career development plans.

> One approach to structuring career education is to start at the job output level and work backwards through post-high school, high school, through junior high and into the elementary school.[7]

Teachers present stumbling blocks when preparing to implement a model occupational or career education thrust into an existing educational situation. Many teachers do not understand the career development concept. They are reluctant to change their way of teaching or integrate new materials into present lesson plans. Most classrooms were not designed to be work shops or places of business; so it takes some ingenuity on the part of the instructor to make the facilities as realistic as possible to the topic of the day. To suggest that

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[6]Maurice W. Roney, "Programming Occupational Education for the Future," School Shop, June 1972.

[7]AVA Portland Convention Proceedings Digest, (Washington: American Vocational Association, 1971)

career education immediately replace what presently exists would be foolish. There is no need to drop the present curriculum; just make it pertinent to the goal of the student. Regardless of the subject content being taught, career education and occupational related theory can be major goals for all students.

> The problem of including career education in an educational philosophy at the aspirational level is complicated by lack of teacher preparation to handle a curriculum in which every subject includes career orientation.[8]

Projects have been funded through discretionary funds under Part "D" of the 1968 Vocational Amendments for the purpose of integrating academic and vocational concepts.[9] The studies were conducted to determine the effect the integrated program had on the motivation, interest, and achievement of the students involved. Academic subjects represented in the study included mathematics, language, social studies, and science. This type of program could well be the tool needed by the schools to provide the knowledge, skill, and flexibility students need in their pursuit of various occupations. All of the above mentioned academic areas could be used to develop related occupational theory information in relation to the discipline.

In essence, the vocational and occupational subject area becomes the laboratory for the application of academic skills and concepts. The academic classroom in turn becomes a resource area for students to gain knowledge, skills, and insights for vocational and occupational success.

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[8]Dennis T. Torp, "Career Education and the Existing Curriculum," School Shop, April 1973.

[9]Herbert B. Tyler and Dale H. Holden, "VIP Integrates Academic and Vocational Subjects," American Vocational Journal, March 1972.

Programs are designed to focus on the practical and realistic application of the various subject matter. Critical evaluation combined with personal knowledge and vocational experience is the prominent characteristic for fundamental integration. Efforts to demonstrate the relationship between courses of study and the world of work are likely to render more relevance to student interests.

> A total curriculum development effort is required by each school district interested in preparing its graduates for the world of work. Each and every school district must assume its share of the responsibility in meeting the occupational needs of its students. This cannot and should not just be left to those few educators who are concerned with occupational education at the high school level and beyond.[10]

A team teaching approach integrating academic and vocational education concepts was implemented in the eleventh and twelfth grades of Winnsboro, Camden, Lancaster, and Chesterfield, South Carolina schools. The program, known as VIP (Vocational Interdisciplinary Program), was designed to put some zip into the school's curriculum. It was found that the program was highly motivational and helped to meet the needs of the students.

> The program is an integrated approach to learning in which the student's interests are captivated and his will to achieve is motivated through the utilization of reinforcement and transference. A team of teachers composed of one vocational and two or three academic teachers is selected in each participating school to implement the interdisciplinary instructional curriculum which preserves the identity of each subject but is interrelated.[11]

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[10] Albert J. Pautler, "Occupational Education in the Curriculum," Educational Leadership, November 1971

[11] Tyler and Holdem, op. cit., p. 46.

The students participating in the program are quite enthused with the new approach to their education. The teachers have commented that they could detect a definite increase in the students' desire and willingness to learn. Along with this, the general attitude of students who had been regarded as under-achievers was greatly improved.

> The thing I like most about this program is that all of the courses are tied together. If you are lost or don't understand some point as you leave one class, you can get help in your next class, because all the teachers in the program are working together.
>
> I really like working together like this. This program is much more interesting to me than taking five or six completely different subjects.[12]

The success of the program has encouraged the participating districts to consider expanding the approach for all students.

Upon Reaching the Shore

This article is based on the idea that comprehensive programs for career development and occupational education must be developed in order to meet the needs of the individual. For many students, career development experiences should represent a core around which other school experiences might be organized and made meaningful.

Entrance into a job today is further complicated by the way in which society views work. Society no longer judges a person by how much he does, but what he does. Too often, worthy work is judged to be that which requires a college degree. This change in the way society views work has created many problems in motivating individuals to get involved in many of today's existing work situations. As an

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[12] Ibid., p.48.

attempt to rectify this problem, the young people preparing to enter the work force must be given the opportunity to develop good work attitudes and a respect for the old values of work.

In order to coordinate other disciplines around concrete occupational experiences, a staffing pattern will be required that will allow academic and vocational instructors to work together as a team. The teacher-coordinator's responsibility would be to coordinate and plan, along with the academic teachers and counselors, ways of organizing the disciplinary content around the concrete experience of the occupational goal.

The performance of the occupational related theory program will require some changes in the existing curriculum and new materials must be developed to support the program. Curriculum development changes should include the efforts of the occupational coordinator, the classroom teacher and the vocational counselor. This will require curriculum development efforts different from the single subject orientation approach of the past.

DELIBERATION: INTIMATIONS OF IMMORALITY FROM RECOLLECTIONS OF EARLY CHILDHOOD

by
Charles Simcox

> Rightly or wrongly, I saw us as engaged in a war--a death struggle, so to speak--in which only one side could win It was a dominance/ submissiveness conflict in which either I, the teacher, or they, the class, would come out on top.--Wesley Miller

Unfortunately, Miller's attitude is not atypical. He shares it with teachers from all levels and disciplines. This is not to say that teachers generally seek an opportunity in which to exercise power. Quite the contrary! Most teachers seek to develop a strong interpersonal relationship with their students. They recognize a connection between rapport and motivation Thus, they often go to extreme ends to "get their students to like them." It is not uncommon to hear one teacher describe enthusiastically to a colleague the success of a recent classroom "performance" in which he had his students "dying in laughter," "spellbound in wondrous adoration," or "inspired to fervent and thoughtful discussion." Tragically, efforts at building solid interactional relationships are too often futile--frustrated by a thoughtless and improper act of power in angry response to what is perceived as indecorous student behavior. Thus, rather than rapport, the teacher frequently finds discipline problems his reward. It is therefore not suprising to discover that a recent survey conducted by Phi Delta Kappan revealed that teachers have identified lack of discipline as the number one instructional problem for the fifth time in the past six years.[1]

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[1]George H. Gallup, "Sixth Annual Gallup Poll of Public Attitudes Toward Education," Phi Delta Kappan, LVI (September , 1974), p. 21.

And, one would have difficulty refuting the results of the survey. Evidence of rebellion, resentment, defiance, hostility, resistance, anger, aggression, retaliation, tattling, and cheating abound in most instructional settings. All constitute discipline problems. At the same time, all are described by psychologists as mechanisms that the suppressed use for coping with overwhelming power.

Miller may well win. But, in doing so he must sacrifice his class to apathy and mediocrity. Though tyranny may dispell anarchy and achieve order, it does so at the expense of suppressed creativity and inspiration. The victims of tyranny are rendered helpless in the face of overwhelming power. This helplessness is manifest first as rage, then desperate frustration, and finally, impotent servility.

Reading Miller's article evoked within me a chain response driving me back through layers of lost time to past moments of powerlessness. Once more I sat in the fourth-grade classroom controlled by Miss Sarah Landsettle--a tall, gaunt spinster in her late fifties who reminded us all of the wicked witch of the west in the film, The Wizard of Oz. The day's assignment for English had been to write a few lines of poetry to show we understood variety in the iambic pattern of verse arrangement. I had forgotten.

"Pass in your work, children."

Panicked, I scratched out the only words my mind could surface:

I try to be a scholar,
  But it's so hard to be good;
The teacher takes me by the collar
  And does what you think she would.

With a sigh of relief and some pride in my cleverness, I put my paper on the pile. Quite unaware of any Freudian subconscious connections between

what I had written and the classroom climate, I waited anxiously for the teacher's reaction. Time passed. I fidgeted and tried diagraming some practice exercises in our workbook. Suddently . . .

"Who wrote this?"

Miss Landsettle chanted the lines a minute before I had been certain would win me fame. Her tone of voice intimated another end. Never pleasant, it now cracked hysterically.

"Who wrote this, this . . . piece of trash?"

I cringed--past evidence of her temper flashing across my mind. Again, the demand that the writer identify himself sliced through the room. Then it hit me. In my rush, I had not signed my name. Relief! It fell upon me and washed over me like welcome drops of summer rain. The respite, however, was short-lived.

"If no one will own up, we'll just go through each paper name-by-name, and . . ."

Whoever said "confession is good for the soul" did not know Miss Landsettle. I stood before her that day and throughout the term, innocent and condemned. My punishment became symbolic banishment. The other students were instructed not to associate with me--and out of fear, obeyed. Not only was I too small to rebel physically, I had become invisible as well, an Akaky Akakiyevich in miniature. What little enthusiasm I had had to learn disappeared, and it was only with the greatest of luck (if not administrative error) that I was passed on that year.

Jumping ahead in time, I stood again before Dr. David Ulmer. He was flipping through his grade book, about to explain why I had received a "B" in Science in the Modern World.

"Ah yes, here it is." His head snapped up to lock his eyes with mine. "Young man, you pulled a 'C' on the mid-term. The grade counts one-third of the final mark. I made that abundantly clear at the outset of the term. Yet, (and here his eyes grew crimson above his flaring nostrils) each term there's one or two in a class who never seem to get the word . . ."

"But sir," I cut in, perhaps too abruptly. "That was the original mark. You changed it. Remember?

"I recall no such thing."

How could he have forgotten? And, for that matter, why was the "C" still in his book? He had promised to change it.

The events leading up to that promise were so vivid. They occured several months before, the day he returned the mid-term examinations.

We stood outside the science building sharing our papers. I was disappointed with my "C." But, I had accepted it, figuring Ulmer to be a tough grader. However, as I read over my friend Jim's "B" paper, I knew there had to be a mistake. He hadn't studied, and his work showed it.

Jim spoke first. "Wow, did you get ripped off! If I were you, I'd complain."

Dr. Ulmer was still in his office. I knocked softly.

"Come in."

Entering, I felt my stomach tighten. Conditioned by past experiences of challenging teachers, I was certain he would be unpleasant. I was in for a shock.

He reread my exam. Afterwards, he smiled and said, "My boy, this is an outstanding paper. Wish I received more like it. I felt the same

when I first read it. In fact, I'd made a mental note to share it with the class. I just don't know where that 'C' came from. Guess that shows that even professors are human, doesn't it?"

He lifted his pen, drew a line through the "C," and replaced it with an "A." I was elated.

"Thank you, sir. I really appreciate your taking time . . ."

"No thanks necessary; just keep up the good work," he said, his tone dismissing me.

Dr. Ulmer looked down at his desk, intent on returning to what he had been doing before I interrupted. I did not move. He shuffled some papers, then glanced up.

"Yes?" This time there was a trace of impatience.

Cautiously, "Are you going to make that change in your grade book? His eyes tightened. "It's not here. However, I'll attend to it as soon as I get home. Ok?"

"Yes sir," I said, shifting under his stare. "I'm sorry; I was only . . ."

Once more, he interrupted. "Mr. Simcox, I promise you I'll change it when I get home. Consider the grade changed. Now, let's both get back to work." He smiled, then looked again at his desk. The matter was closed.

On Wednesday, he read my exam to the class. I was pleased, and after class, thanked him.

The rest of the term went well. I received a 98 on my oral presentation and an "A" on the final.

When the envelope containing the final grades arrived, I opened it quickly, certain of a "4.0" term. My eyes raced over the letters--all

"A's," that is, except for a "B" in science. Obviously, another human error! Well, Dr. Ulmer would correct it when I got back to school . . . .

Dr. Ulmer leaned back in his chair, his eyes fixed on something beyond the window. When I finished, he looked again at me.

"Show me the proof."

"What?"

"The paper. Show me the paper."

He had never returned it. I told him.

"I never keep students' papers."

I tried once more to make him remember. He only stared. With each word his face grew more tense. Finally . . .

"Get out!"

"What?"

Dr. Ulmer jumped to his feet. He shook.

"You ask me to change your grade. Ok, I'm willing. But, why? My record book carries a 'C' as your mid-term grade. If the grade is wrong, show me. If not, get out! You're wasting my time."

For me, such experiences were few. Still, I had enough to agree with Shelley that "power, like a desolating pestilence, pollutes whate'er it touches."

But, do not misunderstand me. I do not hold these teachers wholly responsible for their abuse of power. They serve only as two examples of just one more American oxymoron--democratic-totalitarianism.

Yet, if the abuse of power in the classroom is not the result of deliberate action, why does it so frequently occur? And, if the teacher who misuses his authority is not wholly responsible, then who shares it

with him? There are several answers to these questions, all or some of which seem to explain each instance of aggressive behavior.

To begin with, the natural scientists have failed to find any animal other than man that takes joy from torturing and killing its own kind. Unique among living creatures, the human kills without biological impulse. Man greatly fears and yet is fascinated by death. Throughout history, he has bound himself by over-restrictive laws and bizarre punishments that demonstrate not a concern for right living but rather an obsession for violence and destruction combined with an overwhelming guilt.

Since man's attraction to the destruction of his species is not shared by other primates, many argue that such behavior is then not instinctive, that it is in fact a learned rather than natural emotion. The thrust of such arguments is that if the behavior is not instinctive, it is then more readily amenable to modification. Unfortunately, to argue that passion lacks the strength of instinctual drive is to underestimate its force.

Unlike instinct, passion combines emotion with intellect. The resultant interactional effect is to intensify rather than mollify. While, for example, man may be moved instinctively to kill for food or out of self-defense, he can be driven by passion to brutal and heinous acts of unspeakable enormity. Instinct, therefore, is neutral; passion is dynamic. Instinct dissolves as that which prompts it disappears; passion consumes both its stimulant and that which gives it life. But, to be consumed is not to die. Like the mystical Phoenix, passion rises fresh from the ashes of its pyre, stronger in a second birth.

Unfortunately, our modern world not only creates and nurtures destructive passions, it also restricts their natural expression. War and sports, for instance, are two acceptable outlets. But, for most people the opportunity for such release is rare. In addition, stereotype and convention dictate the method of release. Men do not cry; women do not fight; children are "to be seen and not heard." Public display of anger, at least among one's peers, is taboo. Not only must one repress his own distructive drives, he cannot tolerate others to display them. Thus, like a tumor untreated, it grows daily larger and more painful until it suddenly explodes, destroying itself and the body which contained it.

Unable to express his passion in any natural way, man can only let it leak out from time to time in places where he is least vulnerable to censure. The classroom is such a place. There, outbursts of teacher hostility are sanctioned by the system. In loco parentis, the teacher has the authority to judge student behavior and punish as he deems fit. Thus, students are often the hapless victims of the seepage of some teacher's mounting passion.

In addition to suffering from their teacher's passion leakage, many students must also endure his insatiable emotional appetite. Contrary to the popular stereotype fostered by Sunday School and "Father Knows Best," love is not the primum mobile of the average American home. More often than not, American children suffer from love deprivation. This does not mean that love does not exist, nor does it mean that there are no ostensible signs of its existence. In most homes love does exist and each member is aware that the others care for him. However, there is today a reluctance to "give of one's self." Substitutes for such

interpersonal sharing have been created and days for their exchange identified. "Purchased" gifts are traded on Christmas, Valentine's Day, Easter, and birthdays. And, emotional displays of affection are reserved for those occasions and are evoked by the gifts.

Once weaned, the child must learn to repress his need to be touched, held, and fondled. Thus, by adulthood most Americans avoid close physical contact with other adults, though at a pre-conscious level they greatly desire it. This desire they then translate into a need for recognition that cannot be satisfied. Teachers prompted by this need often seek to gratify it through the admiration of their students.

Obviously, these teachers cannot "be themselves," for their subconscious mind and familial history tells them that what they are is not worth loving. Thus, they use their power (and concomitantly suspend their disbelief) to force their students to "fondle" them with respect, attention, and praise.

A related response to love deprivation is manifest in behavior similar to that found in the tyrannus classicus. "Tyrant" to the early Greeks described a leader not unlike Plato's philosopher-king. His rule was autocratic and stern, but always in the "best" interest of his subjects.

Likewise, many teachers believe they know what is best for their students. And far too often, what they perceive as "best for their students" is irrelevant and esoteric information passed on to them by their teachers who also "drank the milk of paradise." Unfortunately, much that is proffered as knowledge is not clearly understood by the teacher himself. Consequently, much trivial nonsense dressed in semantic disguise is paraded before generations of students who, because they

cannot comprehend the incomprehensible, stand in awe before their masters. In this case, the teacher is wrongly deified as he uses information veiled in mystery as his primary source of power. Obviously, this procedure is incompatible with any instructional attitude except the authoritarian. The autocratic teacher is "safe" in his power to manipulate the investigation of ideas and the selection of the medium of inquiry. He is a successful pretender to knowledge that he will not, because he cannot, share--but, by this pretense he is able to retain his students in academic thralldom.

Obviously, however, he does not hold them against their will. For, the authoritarian personality is cyclical and reciprocal. It is, in fact, best characterized as sado-masochistic. The authoritarian is possessed of a will to power; at the same time, he is driven by a basic sense of powerlessness.

Modern man is caught in a press of mounting bewilderment. He feels anxious, isolated, and helpless. His freedom to structure his own life frightens him. This condition creates in him a desire to escape the threat of freedom. Out of his growing inability to exercise self-control, man submits himself to the autocratic leader. Under such leadership, he can both lose himself and at once gain strength. His sadistic and masochistic urges are equally satisfied by this action: the former rationalized as participation in the control of others, the latter as intense commitment to duty.

The autocratic leader both reveres authority and concomitantly desires to exercise it. He is the product of a predominantly hierarchical, exploitive, and authoritative upbringing that leaves him desperately clutching what he perceives as powerful and scorning what he sees as weak.

The American teacher is typically a totalitarian figure who stresses such middle-class virtues as duty to one's society rather than to his individual conscience, repressed emotions, a concern for order at the expense of creativity, a capitalistically-based impulse to acquire, and the idealization of work. He fosters a classroom atmosphere that subordinates students to a claustrophobic system of values. In doing so, he ignores the Kantian principle that each man is an end in himself: he is not to be seen as the means to another's end.

The authoritarian classroom instills patterns of social behavior contrary to those essential to the continued practice of democracy. It fosters attitudes that few can shake off. Yet, it was not attitudes like these that made America strong. Success in past international conflicts resulted from a joint resolve that freedom must prevail rather than a collective submission to a belief that the enemy must suffer defeat. Thus, more than that exerted by any external power, the greater threat to this nation lies in the continuance of authoritarian principles such as those found in many classrooms. Democracy depends upon the mature exercise of freedom by all its people. It insists that all citizens participate in a continuing analysis and evaluation of themselves and their social and political structure. Conversely, autocracy relies solely upon the people's will to obey.

The typical American lives in a state of continuous conflict. He is taught his rights and responsibilities as a citizen of a democracy. At the same time, he is subjected daily to a social system that is fundamentally authoritarian. It is difficult, if not impossible, to cite a single American social, political, industrial, or educational organization in which men are not subject to (or responsible for) the exercise of power.

This, however, can be changed. The classroom, long applauded as a refuge against suppression, can work to deserve that praise. It can today become a laboratory for the practice of freedom.

But, for this to happen, the authoritarian must be driven out. In his place must stand the democrat, free of hidden agenda and guilt, ready to accept his students as co-equals in the pursuit of knowledge and the classroom as a forum for unrestrained and imaginative discourse.

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DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS ARE INCLUDED, TOO

by
Charles Eisentrout

Federal legislation has placed considerable emphasis on providing vocational education for all individuals. This includes individuals with special needs and problems who cannot succeed in regular programs.

Legislation within the last ten years has especially focused attention on a particular group known as the disadvantaged. Funds and guidelines have been provided for programs and the challenge to train these individuals has been given to vocational educators. Converting paper programs to practical training has been successful in areas where vocational educators have accepted this responsibility and implemented programs for the disadvantaged.

Who Are the Disadvantaged

A description of the disadvantaged can be located in the Federal Register.

> 'Disadvantaged persons' means persons who have academic, socioeconomic, cultural, or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in vocational education or consumer and homemaking programs designed for persons without such handicaps, and who for that reason require specially designed educational programs or related services. The term includes persons whose needs for such programs or services result from poverty, neglect, delinquency, or cultural or linguistic isolation from the community at large, but does not include physically or mentally handicapped persons, unless such persons also suffer from the handicaps described in this paragraph.[1]

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[1]U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Office of Education. Federal Register. Vol. 35, No. 4. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. Government Printing Office, 1970. Sec. 102.3 (i).

More descriptive definitions of the disadvantaged are available, including those in state plans. The Pennsylvania State Plan, Part I, Section 3:12 identifies disadvantaged persons as:

> (a) Economically disadvantaged - a person who has or comes from a family who has an annual income of less than $3,000 per year or whose family receives aid to families with dependent children or meets additional criteria or economic disadvantagement utilized by the State Board for the purpose of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.
>
> (b) Educationally disadvantaged - persons shall be considered educationally disadvantaged if they are below minimum competence in reading and mathematics as determined by the local educational agency.

According to Love,

> . . . the disadvantaged are most likely to be found among minority groups such as: Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Mexican-Americans, Indians, Cuban refugees, Appalachian whites, and the migrant poor.[2]

Disadvantaged persons are usually found in large numbers in city slums and rural depressed areas where schools are not up to standards.

Federal Legislation for the Disadvantaged

Legislation relative to vocational education and the disadvantaged can be found as early as 1785, and later in the Morell Act of 1862. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and the George-Barden Act of 1946, also provided legislation toward supplying manpower in certain areas of the economy.[3]

The 1960's was the most progressive period for federal legislation supporting the disadvantaged in our society. A few of these laws not

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[2]Don Love, Education for the Disadvantaged, A New Dimension (Los Angeles: Los Angeles City College, 1970).

[3]Ibid.

only supported equal opportunities for the disadvantaged, but gave priority to funds in the development of training programs.

Legislation of the 1960's included: Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the National Defense Education Act of 1958, the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, and the Vocational Education Acts of 1963 and 1968. In the Vocational Education Act of 1963, emphasis was placed on providing vocational education to meet the needs of individuals, rather than on selected occupational categories. The 1963 Vocational Education Act, Section 4 (a) (4), gives specific instructions for vocational educators to give attention to students with academic, socioeconomic or other handicaps. Provisions are also made for the development of experimental and pilot programs to help solve the problems of the disadvantaged person.

Attention to the individual needs of people continued in the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968. This Amendment requires that vocational education be aimed at the needs of individuals rather than occupations. This legislation also requires that at least 15 percent of the basic federal allotment to vocational education be used for the disadvantaged person. The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 (PL 90-576) state:

> If certain disadvantaged or handicapped persons cannot benefit from regular vocational programs to any extent, even with modifications, . . . then these persons shall be provided with special programs of vocational instruction which meet the standards and requirements of regular vocational programs set forth in No. 102.4.

It is clearly stated that special vocational programs for the disadvantaged shall meet the requirements and standards of regular vocational programs. In many areas these standards are not always met

and programs for the disadvantaged are placed in rundown facilities, with broken or obsolete equipment, secondhand materials, and poorly trained teachers. These programs usually fail and the disadvantaged student experiences defeat again.

Congress continued to recognize the necessity for aid to help the disadvantaged by passing the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA) (PL 93-203). This Act provides job training and employment opportunities to economically disadvantaged, unemployed and underemployed persons. Special attention is given to the disadvantaged, welfare recipients and former trainees of manpower programs. This Act has brought the existing manpower programs and administration under the manpower revenue sharing program. Under this Act, state and local governments in areas with a population of 100,000 or more can become prime sponsors and plan and control manpower programs. A concern of vocational educators under this Act, according to Burkett, is the Labor Department's proposal to eliminate vocational education's role in planning and administering the institutional programs.[4] This proposal might lead one to believe that educators have not achieved much success in this area. Matthews states that over 1.2 million disadvantaged trainees have been involved with institutional training programs administered by the public school systems.[5] Independent evaluators have found these programs to be very successful in terms of placement, post-training to the labor force, and increased earnings. The

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[4]Lowell A. Burkett, "Latest Word From Washington," American Vocational Journal. March 1974. Vol. 49, No. 3.

[5]Howard Matthews, "What's Ahead for Manpower Legislation?" American Vocational Journal. February 1973. Vol. 48, No. 2.

vocational educator should recognize that his role in planning and administering programs for the disadvantaged may be slipping, whatever the reason, with new legislation.

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, also included guidelines for the Manpower Development and Training Act, the Emergency Employment Act, and the manpower parts of the Economic Opportunity Act.

Manpower Development and Training Program

Federal legislation was responsible for the development of a variety of training programs to serve the disadvantaged. Probably the best known is the manpower training program. The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (with the 1968 Amendments) was to reduce unemployment and underemployment of disadvantaged persons. This Act is now under the guidelines of CETA 1973.

A disadvantaged individual, for manpower program purposes, is a poor person who does not have suitable employment and who is either (1) a school dropout, (2) a member of a minority, (3) under 22 years of age, (4) 45 years of age or over, or (5) handicapped.[6]

Training programs are established through the local employment agencies. This office surveys the job market and determines what occupations will need trained persons. Individuals are then referred to the local vocational education institution for classroom instruction.

Several types of occupational training are offered under this program. More than 600,000 trainees, enrolled in the MDTA from 1963

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[6]U.S. Department of Labor. Manpower Administration Order 1-69 of January 16, 1969. Cited by Seymour S. Rubak, "Manpower Training Trends," Contemporary Concepts in Vocational Education, Gordon Law (ed.) (Washington, D.C.: The American Vocational Association, Inc., 1971).

to 1968, completed training and approximately ninety percent of this figure were employed during the first year.[7] Under this program, youths sixteen to twenty-one, are placed in residential centers which offer a program of vocational training and useful work experience. An important feature of this program is that enrollees are removed from poor home conditions during the training period.

Neighborhood Youth Corps--OJT

The Neighborhood Youth Corps training programs for youth in-school and out-of-school, operates under the 1966 Amendment to the Economic Opportunity Act--now under guidelines of CETA, Title III, on-the-job training. This program provides employment and training to needy young men and women, sixteen and over, making it possible for them to stay in school, return to school, and increase their employment potential.

NYC projects are proposed by state or local public agencies and by private, non-profit organizations. The projects employ students and school dropouts from low income families in schools, libraries, hospitals, parks and state and municipal agencies. According to Rathbin, higher unemployment among youths was prevented through NYC and Job Corps programs.[8] Over one million youth were enrolled in these programs in 1971.

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[7]U.S. Department of Labor. Manpower Administration, Manpower Report of the President for 1969. Washington, D.C., 1969.

[8]Donald L. Rathbin, "Manpower Reports," American Vocational Journal. May 1972. Vol. 47, No. 5.

Cooperative Vocational Education and Work-Study Program

Cooperative vocational education and work-study programs have been successful in some areas in training the disadvantaged.[9] Cooperative vocational education is a program that involves giving the student on-the-job training and related classroom instruction in a particular occupation. This is accomplished through an agreement with the school, industry, business, student and parents. Under this arrangement the student works part-time at a training station provided by business and industry and receives on-the-job training and returns to the school for related classroom instruction. The main purpose of this program is to provide the student with job entry skills in an occupation related to his interests and goals. The success of this program depends on coordination of activities and the availability of training stations.

The work-study program is planned to provide financial assistance to needy students and enable them to continue their education. Employment under the work-study program is available to students ages fifteen to twenty-one who are accepted or enrolled in a full-time approved educational program. This program usually does not have the related classroom instruction to on-the-job training as found in the cooperative program. In addition to financial assistance, the student may receive remedial education and counseling to encourage them to stay in school.

Students are usually in the eleventh or twelfth grade when they enter cooperative vocational or work-study programs. Many students

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[9]Robert E. Geller, "Rehabilitation Based on Work Experience Training," American Vocational Journal. May 1969. Vol. 44, No. 5.

have made the decision to drop out or are dropouts by the time these programs are available. Bottoms and Reynolds indicate that these programs would be more valuable if they would seek out disadvantaged youth at whatever age the program could be of benefit.[10]

Establishing Programs for the Disadvantaged

Vocational education administrators have the responsibility to provide vocational education training programs for the disadvantaged. The programs should be designed to provide the disadvantaged student with opportunities and training to enter the main stream of life.

Individual states have established agencies to provide assistance to the vocational educators in establishing programs for the disadvantaged. Pennsylvania established the Office of Special Vocational Education Programs under the Bureau of Vocational Education in February, 1970 (see Appendix A).[11]

The administrators of vocational education programs across the country apparently have been confused about what occupations best serve the interests and needs of the disadvantaged. When planning programs for the disadvantaged, each individual should be evaluated to determine his background, interest and needs. It is important not only to identify the disadvantaged person but to identify his individual needs.

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[10]Gene Bottoms and Kenneth Reynolds, "Work Experience Programs for Behavior Modification," American Vocational Journal, May 1969, Vol. 44, No. 5, 24-26.

[11]Ferman B. Moody, A Description of Special Vocational Education Programs for Disadvantaged Persons in Pennsylvania (Harrisburg: Pennsylvania Department of Education, 1970).

If the vocational education program for the disadvantaged is to be successful, the curriculum must meet the individual needs of these students. According to Love, we must have total flexibility in curricula development, based on the in-depth study of the student's interests, character and abilities.[12]

Bobbitt and Letwin state that individual needs of the disadvantaged person must be identified because it is the most direct route of reaching this type of person.[13] Assistance in identifying individual needs may be obtained from the school files, principals, guidance counselors, past teachers, social workers or interviews with the student. Written permission to review certain types of information on school records should be secured from the student and the parent as required under guidelines for using confidential records.

One of the factors in the success of a program of vocational education for the disadvantaged can probably be traced to the teacher. Competent dedicated teachers are needed to understand and help the disadvantaged with his many problems, if these programs are to be successful. We have not always used the services of teachers or personnel qualified to relate to the disadvantaged person and his needs. The selection of these individuals is important in the success of the vocational education program.

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[12]Love, op. cit.

[13]Frank Bobbitt and Linda Letwin, Techniques for Teaching Disadvantaged Youth in Vocational Education (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1971).

Nichols points to certification barriers as one of the reasons for not using talent from the disadvantaged community.[14] He suggests that certificating bodies such as civil service, and state certification boards are reluctant to grant needed certification to individuals who can continue to operate the programs and reach the disadvantaged people.

Supportive Services for Disadvantaged

The disadvantaged person has not had a record of success and will require support from many sources if progress is expected. Love states that no matter how sophisticated the Vocational Education curricula, the program can easily fail without a well planned and implemented supportive system in guidance, counseling and other services.[15] He believes that the counselor has the key role in making the program a success. It is the counselor who must direct the student toward remedial education and tutoring. The counselor must assist the student in vocational selection and placement, and work with the student on problems of finances, welfare and parole difficulties if required. The counselor must relate to the disadvantaged student and become totally involved in each individuals' problems to keep him enrolled in the vocational education program. The counselor has a variety of duties in providing assistance to the disadvantaged person. He must be available and able to provide services that may involve cooperation with other individuals, groups and agencies in the community.

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[14]Charles F. Nichols, "Vocational Education for the Disadvantaged Seven Years Later," American Vocational Journal November, 1970, Vol. 45, No. 8.

[15]Love, op. cit.

The National Committee on Employment of Youth gives several suggestions as to the type of services which are essential in the vocational program for the disadvantaged.[16] These services include:

1. Medical and dental examinations and treatment to correct the high incidence of such defects among the disadvantaged.
2. Case work and psychiatric services.
3. Day care or babysitters for the young children of female students.
4. Legal services for dealing with police and related problems.
5. Transportation facilities (public buses or private cars) to get to distant or unaccessible classroom jobs.
6. Loan funds for work related emergencies such as fares or lunch money or the purchase of work clothes or tools.
7. Welfare support services.

The supportive agencies must be held accountable for their treatment of youth referred to them. Feedback from the agencies and youth will provide information relating to types of services available in the community.

Employment of Disadvantaged

School administrators and representatives from business and industry must work jointly to provide employment opportunities for the

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[16]National Committee on Employment of Youth. A Guide to the Development of Vocational Education Programs and Services for the Disadvantaged (New York: National Committee on Employment of Youth, 1969).

disadvantaged. Nichols states that vocational education succeeds only if it leads to employment or a desire for further education.[17]

The Third Report of the National Advisory Council states that the school should assume the responsibility for placing students on jobs.[18] The community also has the responsibility for helping to provide jobs for the students in these programs. Prospective employers in the community should be involved in the functions of programs for the disadvantaged.

Kemp suggested that whenever possible advisory committees should include persons from the disadvantaged community. These people can help to determine employment opportunities, and what type of teachers might be required.[19]

We can provide financial aid to develop programs for the disadvantaged, identify the disadvantaged, discover his interests, needs and abilities, provide competent teachers, but deep community involvement is necessary in organizing and operating a successful program of vocational education for the disadvantaged person.

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[17]Nichols, op. cit.

[18]Third Report, National Advisory Council on Vocational Education. (Washington, D.C.: 1970).

[19]Barbara Kemp, "Highlighting the Nature of the Disadvantaged and Handicapped: Suggestions for Local Program Implementation." Presented at the Administrator's Workshop on Vocational Education Opportunities for Disadvantaged and Handicapped Persons (New Brunswick, New Jersey: April 26-27, 1971).

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APPENDIX

APPLICATION PROCEDURES--P.L. 90-576 PART "A" DISADVANTAGED

The following guidelines are applicable for financial support to local educational agencies, colleges and universities and private non-profit organizations to develop new and innovative activities to meet the occupational training needs of disadvantaged persons.

"Disadvantaged persons" means persons who have academic, socio-economic, cultural, or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in vocational education or consumer and homemaking programs designed for persons without such handicaps, and who for that reason, require specially designed educational programs or related services. The term includes persons whose needs for such programs or services result from poverty, neglect, delinquency, or cultural or linguistic isolation from the community at large, but does not include physically or mentally handicapped persons, unless such persons also suffer from the handicaps described in this paragraph. (From Federal Register, Vol. 35, No. 4 Part II, January 7, 1970, §102 3 (i).

Priority will be given to providing support to those special vocational education programs in areas where there are high concentrations of youth who are unemployed, underemployed or in need of job retraining.

Agencies seeking funds should submit a detailed proposal following the outline given below:

A. Preliminary Statement

A "preliminary statement" is a brief description of proposed activities. This procedure is optional on the part of applicants and will not affect the probability of funding an activity. The preliminary statement is intended to help the potential investigator avoid spending time on a formal proposal which may be inappropriate for support. It allows the Bureau of Vocational, Technical and Continuing Education (BVTCE) staff to review the proposal idea and give the project director an indication of interest, probability of funding and the modification or adjustment needed to build a formal proposal. The suggestions from this review does not prohibit a project initiator from submitting a formal proposal nor does it guarantee proposal approval.

A suggested outline for the preliminary statement includes a brief statement of rationale, objectives, procedures, means of evaluation, and a budget estimate. Five copies of the preliminary statement should be sent to the BVTCE well in advance of the time the proposal is to be submitted.

B. The Proposal Document

A proposal should be developed which will communicate to an individual unfamiliar with the project the basic plan and how the plan will be initiated.

1. Cover Page

a. A concise descriptive title
b. Applicants name, address and phone number
c. Institution or agency
d. Beginning and ending dates of the project
e. Estimated budget figure
f. The project initiators name and title

2. Body

The body of the proposal communicates the investigators plan and its proposed effectiveness. The following headings should be used:

a. Background rationale (need)--Give a brief statement of the problem explaining its importance and relationship to vocational education. Present the rationale upon which the proposal is based and its uniqueness in serving disadvantaged individuals in this locale. Statistics or background research to support the idea should be included.

b. Objectives--State the objectives to be achieved or the questions to be answered. They should be clear, precise and capable of being attained by the proposed procedures.

c. Procedures--Describe the procedures in detail, listing the steps to be followed. Provide specific information about each of the following:

(1) General design
(2) Population and sample
(3) Time schedule
(4) Instrumentation

d. Personnel--Include the name of the investigator and other staff personnel and give a brief statement of their pertinent experience and unique qualifications to perform the proposed activity.

e. Facilities--Indicate the special facilities and similar advantages available to the institution or agency which will aid in the conduct of the project. Describe the procedure used in selection of facilities (if applicable).

f. Outcomes--Give an indication of the number of persons to be served and what is hoped to be accomplished by the conduct of the proposed activity. Indicate how the program will be operated once federal funding is terminated.

g. Evaluation--Indicate how the results of the project will be evaluated. The evaluation procedures should relate to the objectives of the project.

h. Reports--Quarterly progress reports (five copies) are required. Ten copies of a final report shall be submitted at the conclusion of the project. The final report should be accompanied by 20 copies of a two or three page abstract of the program.

i. Budget--Attached to the body of the proposal must be an itemized budget giving the details of each expenditure item (Part A of PL 90-576 prohibits payment to trainees in the form of wages). The budget should be placed on the back of the DEBE 131 form.

C. Submission Procedures

Submit five copies of the proposal and budget application DEBE 131, Part A Disadvantaged, and the project proposal in the sequence listed above to the Bureau of Vocational, Technical and Continuing Education. For additional information, please contact:

Office of Special Vocational Education Programs
Pennsylvania Department of Education
Box 911
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania 17126

EQUALITARIANISM VIA POST-SECONDARY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

by
Thomas C. Cooke

Speaking to the 1974 assembly of the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities, Dr. Virginia Y. Trotter, Assistant Secretary for Education, called attention to the educational priorities under the Ford administration. The priorities appear to be natural outgrowths of the higher education movement of the past several years and they are not surprising. They do, however, summarize the position of higher education in the mid 1970's.

Dr. Trotter pointed out that the development of career and vocational education at the post-secondary level is of the greatest importance to the country. The largest possible variety of educational opportunities in vocational fields should be made available to students. It was the expressed objective that every person will be able to acquire post-secondary education and they will not be denied the opportunity because of a lack of funds. Also, Dr. Trotter stressed the equal opportunities for women and minority groups provided for in the educational amendments of 1972.

No doubt, Dr. Trotter was speaking with the same emphasis as any representative of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare in today's social climate. Since the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 (PL90-576) were passed, the nation's educational emphasis has been on developing programs relevant to the occupational interests of the American population. Under the terms of PL90-576, 25 million people each year will have vocational educational opportunities not heretofore available.

The emphasis and guiding philosophy of American education has moved a great distance away from the aristocratic concept of higher education in which only the children of the wealthy attended colleges or universities. Also, we have moved well beyond the meritocratic principles which were applied to select the best and most promising students to enter higher education. The meritocratic application of grades and test scores of intelligence and aptitude, which reached its peak in the 1950's, assumed that the percentage of persons who could profit from a college education was small. The meritocratic ideal which resulted in the talent searches for promising students was regarded as a move in the best tradition of our democracy, but it left a noticeable gap between those who wanted higher education and those who qualified for it.[1]

In a brief review of the numbers attending college since the turn of the century, we see that in 1900 only 10 percent of all high school age youth were attending high school. However, about 75 percent of those graduating from high school went on to college. In the 1950's, the numbers of high school age youth attending high school had reached 90 percent; but, only 25 to 35 percent of the high school graduates entered college.[2] Between 1955 and 1970, undergraduate enrollment in four year institutions increased about two- and one-half times. The same period saw enrollments in junior colleges increase five times.[3]

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[1]Patricia K. Cross, Beyond the Open Door (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Publishers, 1973), p. 3.

[2]Willis E. Dugan, "Opportunity for All," Issues of the Seventies, ed. Fred F. Harcleroad (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Publishers, 1970), p. 47.

[3]Martin Trow, "Admissions and the Crisis in Higher Education," Higher Education for Everybody, ed. W. Todd Furniss. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1971, p. 27.

Aristocracy and meritocracy in higher education have given way to the equalitarian concept of the educational world. If we are to implement this concept, the equalitarian framework of our effort to provide meaningful post-secondary education must be examined.

The financing of post-secondary education through the awarding of grants to students is no longer based on the merits of the student, his ability, or his demonstrated competence. It is based on need. Dr. Trotter and others in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, with Congressional support, expect (perhaps, hope) that when the new Higher Education Act is written to replace the present one expiring in June, 1975, one of the provisions will be for every citizen to have "two years in the bank" of post-secondary education to be taken at any time during his life.[4] The emphasis now is clearly upon increasing post-secondary educational opportunity, and it appears that this will be the direction of American higher education for some time to come.

Because of this equalitarian emphasis, large numbers of students now qualify to enter the doors of institutions of higher education. Not only are the traditional and established institutions seeking to serve these students, but the two-year community colleges have opened new doors to them in increasing numbers. Every student who has the desire to learn, now has access to post-secondary education. Have we then satisfied the equalitarian ideal in higher education? The answer is no. There must be more than open doors to post-secondary education as traditionally conceived if these students are to succeed in reaching their educational goals.

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[4]Virginia Y. Trotter in an address at the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities Meeting, Harrisburg, PA, 1974.

Dr. Cross refers to this large number of students who now have access to post-secondary education for the first time, as "New Students."[5] In dealing with these New Students, educators really have only two choices. One alternative is to attempt to "make over" the New Student so that he may be served by traditional education. This involves special preparatory courses, remediation, tutoring, special counseling, and all other tools at the command of the educator to bring such a student up to the standards of the meritocracy of traditional higher education. The other alternative is to change the post-secondary educational system to meet and serve the aptitudes and needs of the New Student.

The New Student may be characterized as one whose performance in cognitive, academic tasks has been below average; who has been judged as having low academic ability (measured in traditional academic terms); and yet is one who recognizes that education is a way to a better job and a better life. The New Student finds himself in a social climate which not only provides post-secondary educational opportunity, but also urges it upon him. If that opportunity is only the traditional, cognitively based college the New Student may be bitterly disappointed.

> New Students do not--cannot succeed in the traditional classroom . . . Access to education that is inappropriate for the development of individual talents may represent nothing more than prolonged captivity in an environment that offers little more than the opportunity to repeat the damaging experiences with school failure that New Students know so well . . . From nursery school to college we give more attention to correcting the weakness of New Students than to developing their strengths."[6]

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[5]Cross, op. cit., p. 15

[6]Ibid., p. 156.

Schwab points out that the hope of universal higher education for all who desire it will not be served by a system of education which attempts to be all things to all students. It is his opinion that we have for too long treated accumulated skills and knowledge as "defining principles" of education. The time has come when we must treat accumulated skills and knowledge as a resource for education.[7] The educational system must respond to the diverse needs, goals, and abilities of all students if the equalitarian concept is to be implemented. Also, the system must be aware of the constantly changing body of knowledge in each discipline and it must help the student to begin studying in the discipline at the most appropriate level. It must move the student from his present level to the fullest realization of his capabilities.[8]

No post-secondary educational system will successfully meet equalitarian goals as long as the system insists that equality of opportunity means that all students are exposed to a standard body of knowledge. The successful system will focus upon the individual student, and it will help him to develop the capability of solving problems which are important to him. No personal development of students is possible unless we permit them to study and to work in fields in which they have a realistic hope of success.[9]

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[7]Joseph J. Schwab, "Planned Programs," Higher Education for Everybody?, ed. W. Todd Furniss. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1971, pp. 19-20.

[8]Bette J. Soldwedel, "Whoever Wants It Needs It," Higher Education for Everybody?, ed. W. Todd Furniss. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1971, p. 107.

[9]Patricia K. Cross, "New Students In a New World," The Future In the Making, ed. Dyckman W. Vermilge (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1973), pp. 90-92.

"There ought to be equal access to equal life chances so that every unequally born youngster gets the chance to develop his unequal ability to the fullest."[10]

Hopefully, in a democratic society all productive work contributions to the well-being of the total society irrespective of the status of the occupation in the social strata of the society. Strongly connected to this is the belief in the worth and dignity of each individual, and the individual's equal opportunity to pursue self-development.

In helping people to attain personal and social rewards, higher education has more and more preempted the part formerly played by inherited wealth, or the slow climb from job to better job.[11] The current emphasis on equality of access to post-secondary education coupled with multiple opportunities for traditional, vocational, and technical study and training should serve well the ends of equalitarianism. Equality of access to higher education requires new institutions and modification of existing institutions, which will adequately serve the needs of non-traditional students. Otherwise, the system of higher education will serve only to frustrate those whom it wants most to serve.

It is through the development of each individual to his maximum potential that the quality of the total society is improved. The new equalitarian higher education redefined to mean higher level of performance, rather than merely emphasizing only verbal and quantitative

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[10]Max Lerner, "Colleges and the Urban Crisis," Issues of the Seventies, ed. Fred F. Harcleroad (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1970), p. 41.

[11]Natalie Rogoff, "American Public Schools and Equality of Opportunity," Education, Economy and Society, eds. A. H. Halsey, Jean Flosid and C. Arnold Anderson (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1961), p. 144.

abilities, will benefit the total society. Such a concept offers to all people the opportunity to fulfill their various potentials to the highest possible level. The broader our definition of talent, the greater is the opportunity for people to be above average.[12]

In a major study of higher education the 1973 Carnegie Commission of Higher Education[13] suggests that there are many paths to a satisfying adulthood other than college attendance. The Commission calls for universal access to a system of higher education which includes diverse programs meeting many needs. However, the Commission seems to, in fact, emphasize traditional concepts of higher education. Such reports should remind us of the constant need to guard against the process in which, over a period of time, new and innovative institutions tend to assume the character of institutions long established. The Community College which aspires to serve only students with highly cognitive skills will not serve an equalitarian purpose. The expansion of vocational programs will teach more people what they need to know to make a living and will raise the quality of their lives.

Finally, the question must be raised: If the equalitarian goals of post-secondary education for the largest possible number of people are achieved, will our society realize a true equalitarian status?

Speaking in terms of opportunity, and equal access to post-secondary educational programs for all citizens, the answer must be affirmative.

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[12]Patricia K. Cross, "New Students In a New World," The Future In the Making, ed. Dyckman W. Vermilge (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1973), p. 92.

[13]Lewis B. Mayhew, The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1973), pp. 78-83.

However, it must be recognized that in relative terms the meeting of equalitarian goals in higher education will not necessarily mean the achievement of a true equalitarian society. Ambition and ability will continue to be large contributors to individual success. The absolute standard of living may rise, but the position of individuals within the society relative to other individuals may remain relatively unchanged.

This evolution of a modern industrial society . . .

> . . . tends toward increasing the amount of balanced upward and downward individual mobility . . . there is likely to be increased opportunity for people with talent and ambition to get the education they need for better positions and to achieve those positions, while those with less talent and ambition will tend to be downward mobile.[14]

The task of education is to teach people who want to learn, whatever they want to learn. If education can meet this goal it will have achieved an objective which will go far in helping the society to meet its equalitarian ideal.

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[14]Robert J. Havighurst, "Education and Social Mobility in Four Societies," Education, Economy and Society, eds. A. H. Halsey, Jean Flosid, and C. Arnold Anderson (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1961), p. 119.

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OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION VIA TV?
SOME STRONG POSSIBILITIES

by
Nancy Gilgannon

TV in Use

In Pennsylvania, the Hazleton Area School District recently has initiated an innovative use of television for the purpose of disseminating occupational information. This project utilizes mobile television and focuses attention on local industries. By making occupational skills a semi-concrete experience through local video taping of industries, students develop a readiness for broadened occupational horizons. Although professionally prepared films by private industry do fulfill a need, they do not provide the opportunity for the student to identify locally with a particular occupation. Initial evidence from the Hazleton project has indicated that identification becomes much more of a reality when television tapes are not commercially produced. Other related projects that have employed television for career decisions are:

a. Vocational Guidance Series, Harry Drier, Guidance Counselor, Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin.

b. Job Interview Tapes, Darryl Laramore, Coordinator of Vocational Guidance, Sonoma County, Superintendent of School's Office, Sonoma, California.

c. Needed Occupational Television Instruction, television programs designed to identify entry level jobs in occupational areas, Lawson, William, San Bernardino Valley College, San Bernardino, California.

One of the functions of a guidance counselor is to disseminate occupational information to students. Making this information known can be achieved by various media.

As a case in point, very little, if any, local occupational information had been available to Hazleton's guidance counselors. This deficiency has been shared by counselors throughout the country. In addition, the local opening of a 4 million dollar area vocational technical school (AVTS) had placed even more emphasis on the problem of students making mature and knowledgeable decisions concerning their chosen career. It would appear, while counselors are concentrating on nationwide employment trends, we have neglected to evaluate and furnish our students with the proper information that would eventually lead to job placement in the community.

A significant percentage of the vocational-technical students in the Hazleton Area School District are remedial problems, underachievers and mentally retarded. Most of these individuals experience reading difficulties; making it extremely difficult to disseminate any type of occupational information through reading. Inasmuch as learning is more effective when multi-sensory perception is involved, the use of television and video tapes presents an interesting challenge as an innovative way of providing local occupational information to the Hazleton students.

How it Happened - People

An advisory committee from local industries was formed to assist in directing the Hazleton project. This committee assisted in the preparation of a format for the selection of industries that would participate in the television project. The "ground work" for seeking permission and the cooperation of industry was handled by this committee. In addition, the committee outlined the occupational priorities that might be considered when video taping.

As proposed, a television library consisting of 34 master video tapes was developed. Each tape was pertinent to a particular occupation found in the Hazleton area and related to the occupational curriculum at the Hazleton AVTS. Each tape was divided into two levels of interest. The first level was oriented for presentation to intermediate elementary students and contained general occupational information about career clusters. These elementary tapes have been tested to measure if student attitudes have changed toward the specified occupational areas video taped.

The second level was developed for the junior high school grades. At this level the presentation was made by means of a field trip to industry. Each junior high video tape was a tour of one industry and oriented toward the major occupational cluster within that industry. The tours were conducted by individuals familiar with the occupation. The group contained a maximum of fifteen students ranging in age from twelve to fifteen years. These students asked spontaneous questions which were appropriate to their own age level. Prior to the tour, students participated in an orientation session with their counselor. All students were selected on the basis of expressed interest. The occupational video tapes that have been completed to date on the elementary and middle school levels are the following: Auto Body, Auto Mechanics, Construction Trades, Commercial Art, Cosmetology, Drafting, Distributive Education, Electronics, Farm Mechanics, Food Service, Graphic Arts, Health Assistant, Horticulture, Masonry, Cabinet Making, Plumbing, Data Processing and Welding.

How it Happened - Equipment

Once the educational components were developed, which included the identification of immediate and long range goals, attention was directed to methods and techniques of television production that could be incorporated in accomplishing the stated goals. A brief outline of the procedures and techniques used will be described.

The focal point of the Hazleton project was the video taping of an on-the-job setting. Therefore, it was necessary to purchase equipment that would accomplish this task with a minimum cost to the project. "Quality is not so much determined by which kind of equipment is best, per se, as it is by which will best suit your needs."[1]

Complete portability appeared to be the best solution to the difficulties anticipated for video taping in an industrial setting. Communication consultants were called upon to provide expertise in the design of a portable studio. The physical conditions to be encountered were described to the consultants. A portable studio was designed that could function within the restrictions of an industrial setting. The portable studio consisted of: one special effects generator, three monitor banks, three television cameras, one-half inch video recorder, one portable lighting kit, and one television monitor. The special effects and three monitor banks were installed in a portable console. This was then placed on a movable cart with one television monitor and the one-half inch video recorder. All three cameras were mounted on

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[1]Joel Lawrence Efrein, Video Tape Production and Communication Techniques (Blue Ridge Summit, Pennsylvania Tab Book Company, 1972), p. 52.

tripods engineered for ease of movement. The stated objectives of the program were achieved by use of this versatile equipment.

How it Happened - Training

A video consultant trained the local educational personnel along with several vocational-technical electronic students in the use of the equipment. The training course consisted of 45 hours of "hands on" experience with the equipment and 15 hours of theory. In addition, the video consultant accompanied the newly established television crew into industry for the first five video taping sessions.

The television tour was video taped in segments based on an outline cooperatively developed by industry and education. As stated previously, an individual from industry was designated to conduct the television tour. This individual was given the outline of the tour several weeks prior to the actual taping. Several sessions were held at the vocational-technical school for the purpose of indoctrinating the tour guide with the equipment and techniques to be used when video taping. This included a "dry run" in front of the cameras. This procedure seemed to relieve some of the tension experienced by the guide before the television cameras.

How it Happened - The Final Product

During the video taping the tour guide described each segment and answered questions from the students regarding the job process being video taped. In addition, the shop teacher at the Hazleton Vocational-Technical School acted as the educational consultant for the occupation being video taped. This individual assumed the duties of advisor in the evaluation of each segment so that each task had relevance to the

occupational curriculum at the vocational-technical school. Each tour took approximately two days of video taping.

There were incidents when the portable studio was cumbersome. In such cases a portable VideoRover was used.

After the video taping was completed in each industry, the next step was to edit the tapes. It was the design of the program to create a 20 minute junior high school video tape and a 10 minute elementary video tape from the raw data collected in industry on each occupational area.

The junior high school video tape included working with the pre-recorded audio and video segments in a studio setting for the final production of the tape. It was necessary to review the segments once again and determine quality as it related to the original objectives of the project. Electronic assembly editing techniques were then applied to develop a finished product. The elementary video tape was a compilation of studio work and prerecorded video from industry. A script was written for each elementary tape.

As it Looks Now

Locally, the function of such an undertaking was to inform students to the employment opportunities in the Hazleton area. Preferably this should be done before they begin their course selection. This would challenge the students to explore and develop pride in the occupational offerings of their community.

The establishment of an area occupational television video tape library does provide other schools with an opportunity to explore the resources of their neighboring communities.

The use of television has provided the students with a more realistic knowledge of the world of work along with sensory stimulation found in industry which cannot be communicated by means of a written page. Thus, learning has appeared to be more effective, interesting, and challenging with regard to occupational information. In addition, the video tapes originated in the Hazleton Area School District have been distributed throughout the country as a sample of what other areas can do to stimulate interest in the dissemination of occupational information. In some cases, districts using the Hazleton project do not believe the local regionalism detracts from the overall presentation.

Based on research data the Hazleton project can be termed a successful venture. The Hazleton project was forced to find solutions to the problems experienced. Many of the solutions were a compromise with the quality that could be produced using one-half inch equipment.

Did it Work? - Research

As the video tapes were developed, they were pilot tested using fifth and sixth grade students on an elementary level and eighth and ninth grade students on the junior high school level. Changes were made from the recommendations of the students involved.

An attitude test was developed for use in a pretest, post-test design. Sixth and ninth grade students were randomly sampled throughout the district. These students were administered the pretest, viewed the various video tapes and then were administered the post-test. The results of this local research indicated that: 1) the elementary video tapes were geared more for fifth grade students, 2) the junior high video tapes were geared more for eighth grade students, and 3) an additional

component was identified in order to promote curriculum effectiveness. Teacher and curriculum learning packets were developed for use with the video tapes. These packets instructed the teacher on methods to employ when implementing the video tapes. The video tapes did succeed in creating a positive change of attitudes towards the occupational areas viewed by both the sixth and ninth grade students as evidenced by the research results.

> The project has been extremely effective in securing the cooperation of industry and bridging the gap between school and the realities of work. The coordination of community participation with the educational agency stimulated the sponsoring of additional cooperative activities. The use of video tapes is not only a learning device for students, but can provide an excellent means of disseminating knowledge and creating a reason for the community to become involved in education.[2]

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[2]Nancy Gilgannon, "Media Meets Industry for Career Information Program," School Shop (September, 1973), p. 66.

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SOVIET AND AMERICAN ATTITUDES: AN OBSERVATION AND COMMENTARY*

by
Jerome J. Kapitanoff

American educational journals contain many articles stressing the fact in the United States too much emphasis is placed on counseling the college-bound and too little on aiding high school students who are planning to enter the labor market. These articles point out that quite often a disproportionate amount of the counseling effort is directed at students enrolled in the college preparatory curriculum at the expense of the vocationally oriented. They further observe that such devices as career days which acquaint the student with potential vocational choices are not widely employed.

L. G. Hall says that the dignity of work must be stressed. He maintains that educational processes and classroom atmosphere must help non-college-bound youths to develop and maintain self concepts which will enable the individual to make greater use of his abilities.[1] There are evidences that America today is facing grave problems in education which must be solved.

Dr. Sidney Marland, Jr. former United States Commissioner of Education has stated that opportunities for vocational or career education

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[1] L. G. Hall, "Gap in Our High School Program," Education Digest, Vol. 29, December 1963, pp. 8-10.

*The writer of this paper spent several weeks in the Soviet Union in the summer of 1970, accompanied by his Russian-speaking wife. The ideas expressed here are based on the impressions gained during numerous conversations with Russian people.

(which implies a broader base) must be increased. He has stated that such education needs to be increased both at the secondary and community college level. Dr. Marland further contends that there is no longer a place in America, (particularly in light of its highly individualized nature) for a person who is not college bound and who possesses no marketable skill. In an interview with Gene I. Maeroff printed in the New York Times of August 8, 1971, Dr. Marland said:

> We are so preoccupied with higher education that it has become a national fetish. High schools measure success by the number of their students who go on to college. People view vocational education as a great thing for the neighbors' children.[2]

Dr. Marland also feels that career education should replace traditional vocational education and ought to be supported with liberal arts courses. It should begin as early as the first grade with sufficient flexibility to enable students who change their interests to move easily to other areas. In our society youth has been urged to seek higher education so that it now views a college degree as a right rather than a privilege. Too little demand and too much supply has created a large group of unemployed college graduates. For instance, the once beckoning field of education is rapidly becoming overpopulated with teachers.

Kirsten Kelch writing in the Christian Science Monitor says:

> It is no revelation that qualified teachers across the country are working in other professions. In Massachusetts alone, Department of Education records show over 5,000 teachers were vying for just 165 teaching positions open for the 1974-75 school year. The question now is what to do with the glut of teachers who flooded the employment agencies and how to prevent recurrence of the oversupply.[3]

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[2]Gene I. Maeroff, "Education Chief Urges More Career Training," New York Times, August 8, 1971.

[3]Kirsten Kelch, "What to do About the Glut of Jobless Teachers," Christian Science Monitor, October 8, 1974.

Engineers are presently high on the list of unemployed professionals and even Ph.D. chemists and physicists are hard pressed to find employment.[4] Still, youth are not always being adequately informed of the overcrowding in professional fields. Moreover the children of the rural and urban working class population also want college degrees. They want a "better" way of life. The pursuit of the college degree could lead to serious problems in the service and industrial areas, transportation, manufacturing and agriculture, of the American labor force. There are compelling economic reasons why more young people should be attracted to vocational or career education.

Why, then, do young people not seek education which would qualify them for jobs in industry which offer both job security and high monetary incentives? Societal pressures appear to operate which cause young people to prefer education that leads them into the professions where jobs are scarce.

In part this is explained by a kind of "historical imperative" summed up by Harold H. Punke of Auburn University in the following words:

> In days when the American economy was less complex and social classes less fluid, there was a sharp differentiation between the classes for whom liberal and vocational education were thought to be appropriate. A small controlling class pursued learning activities which were referred to as liberal--perhaps less because of the content learned than because it was pursued by persons who already had extensive personal liberty. What education there was for tradesmen, farmers, etc. was determined by the 'liberated' class and consisted largely of on-the-job training or apprenticeship.

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[4]"Demand for Engineers Down in April," Machine Design, Vol. 43:18, July 22, 1971, p. 4. (See also: "College Recruiting Down; Aerospace Hardest Hit," Mechanical Engineering, Vol. 92:5, May 1970, p. 93).

> To maintain social stratification it was essential to keep education for the classes separate--particularly to see that persons who worked primarily with their hands were not 'spoiled' by exposure of the educational experience intended for the ruling class.
>
> Out of these circumstances emerged a 'liberal image' reflecting high-level intellectual activities, engaged in by important people and to be emulated as worthy undertakings. The corresponding 'vocational image' reflected work involving gross muscular activity and skills which presumably anybody could acquire.[5]

With the breakdown of sharply drawn class lines and upward mobility in American society, there has been a desire on the part of the working classes to break out of this historical mold. There has been a tendency to draw away from physical labor while at the same time there has been a reluctance to relax social barriers on the part of the so-called upper classes.

Thus, while there can be no simple answer, certainly "attitude" must be a major factor. One of the ingredients of the American attitude toward labor is American parents' dream of a better economic and social life for their children. No longer in our society of endless upward mobility does a craftsman-father pass the secrets of his trade on to his children. Rather he urges his son to go to college so that he will be relieved of the need to earn a living with his hands. It is not only the parents but the society in general which fosters this attitude. High monetary compensation is not enough. One must also achieve status which causes American society to be seriously handicapped by snobbery and class distinction.

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[5]Harold H. Punke, "Outlook for Humanizing all Vocational Education," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 43:5, May 1968.

Under such circumstances, how can the prevailing social attitudes be modified? How can America's snobbish attitude toward skilled and unskilled labor be eradicated so that our potential mechanics, electricians, plumbers, and painters can enjoy a good life.

Vaughnie J. Lindsay, Associate Professor of Education at the University of Oklahoma writes:

> Earning a living and living a life are tightly interwoven in the cultural fabric of twentieth-century America. Technological repercussions reveal the interrelationships among the ways in which people earn their living and the societal, economic, educational, political, and religious facets of society. Such interdependence demands that subject-matter areas designated as vocational not be isolated from those designated as general or academic.
>
> An adequate philosophy of education must serve the total educational complex, of which vocational education is an integral part.
>
> At this moment in our history, the approach educators take may either reinforce democracy in education or foster development of intellectual class consciousness and intolerance. Much of the challenge rests squarely upon vocational educators.[6]

The Soviet Union has a different attitude towards labor and education. One has only to visit that vast nation to realize that the status of the laborer is quite different from that of the U.S.A., and that in general, the Soviet worker has traditionally been more content with his life than his American counterpart. One factor in this is an inheritance from a very class-conscious Tsarist Russia where peasant and worker knew and kept his place. Paradoxically this heritage has served the "classless" society of the U.S.S.R. well. To be sure, in recent years, there has been a tendency for parents, particularly those engaged in the

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[6]Vaughnie J. Lindsay, "A Vocational Teacher's Philosophy of Education," American Vocational Journal, Vol. 43:3, March 1968, pp. 19 and 21.

professions and those residing in the large cities, to push their children towards higher education. The government, of course, has vigorously discouraged such "bourgeois" tendencies.

Historical differences between the U.S.S.R. and the U.S.A. are great; there is polarity in their forms of government and social philosophy. Therefore, it is not suggested that measures used by the totalitarian U.S.S.R. are applicable to the free society of the U.S.A. It is suggested that the attitudes fostered in the Soviet Union should be explored to find out whether certain elements might or might not be adaptable to American education.

Before attempting to investigate the indoctrinational practices used to inculcate a "vocational attitude" in Soviet citizens, and above all to attempt to apply any findings to the American scene, it is necessary to examine precisely how vocational education is viewed by these different nations. It is necessary to bear in mind semantic differences as well as philosophic ones when attempting to define vocational education in either the American of Soviet context. To be sure, the Russian dictionary term "remeslennoe uchilishche" translates quite simply to "industrial, trade or vocational school." It would be wrong to suppose that this definition is an exact parallel of what this same term means in English and in particular as commonly construed in the United States.

In the larger sense all Soviet education is "vocational-career" in nature. Scholarship for its own sake is not tolerated. Learning at all levels implies an eventual application. While there are specific vocational areas in the overall educational plan, all education from primary through college level has vocational components.

Vocational education, then, in the Soviet sense, includes, besides classical trade and industrial school areas, certain vocational components from bottom to top consonant with the prime goal of providing everyone with a marketable skill, and creating what Vasilev and Chepelev term "a comprehensively developed, harmonious individual capable of finding his place among the builders of communist society."

They further observe that:

> Labor training and upbringing are far from the least important task. A graduate of our schools not only must receive a good general preparatory education and sociopolitical, physical and aesthetic education, but must also master an optimal amount of knowledge and practical skills in order to participate in the productive labor of society.[7]

In contrast, the U.S. Department of Education Pamphlet 117 states: "Vocational education helps to give a definite purpose and meaning to education by relating training to specific occupational goals."[8]

In general, it can be assumed that in the context of the United States, vocational education is a narrower term and that it is applied primarily to the training area in those institutions whose main purpose is to provide a consistent program designed to develop a specialized talent or vocational skill.

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[7]Iu. K. Vasilev and V. I. Chepelev, "Labor Training and Polytechnical Education in the School," Soviet Education, Vol. XVI, No. 6, April 1974, p. 79.

[8]Office of Education, Public Vocational Education Programs Pamphlet 117 (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1957), p. 1.

Vocational Training Components of the Curriculum at Each Educational Level: Elementary, Secondary and Higher in the Soviet Union

Elementary

The eight year school is divided into the primary phase which includes grades one through four and what is considered the first phase of secondary education, grades five through eight.

Teaching in the first four grades is aimed mainly at developing thought processes. The structure of society and man's working activities are revealed to the pupils, and they are initiated into work habits. They also are exposed to physical and artistic activities. Study of the Russian language is of prime importance and basic arithmetic operations with whole numbers are learned. Manual and technical training and socially useful work instill the basic principles of the organization of collective labor. The vocational component, while not greatly emphasized in the very early grades, nevertheless exists even though there is more philosophic than practical exposure to this element.

In grades five through eight, history, advanced mathematics, and science, both physical and natural, are added to the subjects already mentioned In general, stress is placed on the connection between class instruction with everyday life and production so as to imbue the students with a "polytechnical outlook."

Katterle says of this: "The emphasis is on education for work even through the lessons in general education."[9]

Boys (and usually girls) learn simple metal and electrical work and study cultivation of crops and raising of small farm animals. Girls

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[9]Zeno Katterle, Schools in the Soviet (Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1965), p. 22.

also learn the traditional cooking, sewing and home management skills. There is training in the operation of machine tools such as lathes, drill presses, etc., and classes create useful items in line with their training to produce socially useful work.

The Soviets consider certain areas so important that students are given training in them immediately upon entering school. These include: Russian language, mathematics, drawing, music, physical education, and manual and technical training. The major emphasis in grades one through four is placed upon the Russian language and mathematics, followed by physical education, and manual and technical training.

In grades five through eight, literature, history, sciences, foreign language and technical drawing along with socially useful work and production practice are added to the on-going manual and technical training.

Moos says that this basic school is no longer responsible for training pupils for a job and that:

> Their task is to give pupils a background of experience and an understanding of production processes as well as some skills that will help them choose their future work and prepare them to get their specific training in a vocational school or technicum.[10]

Moos also quotes a Soviet source which says:

> The general schools must provide a knowledge of and practical acquaintance with the fundamentals of modern production, using the basic laws of physics, chemistry, biology and other sciences.[11]

The source further contends that when pupils have an understanding of the processes which underlie both industry and agriculture and when

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[10] Elizabeth Moos, Soviet Education: Achievements and Goals (New York: National Council of American/Soviet Friendship, 1967), p. 36.

[11] Ibid.

they have gained some idea of labor discipline as well as knowing how to keep a work area orderly, and when they have learned to observe safety regulations and can apply their classroom work in a practical manner, only then they are ready to choose a career and be trained for a specific job in a vocational school or other institution.

The vocational bias of the eight year school is quite apparent, both from consideration of the actual curriculum which is drawn up by The Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and from the previously noted statement of goals. A. G. Dubov very well sums up the situation at this level when he writes:

> . . . one should mention the inculcation of a communist attitude to labor, which is the task not only of labor training but of educational work of the school.
>
> It is well known that labor training and education are mutually related and influence one another, being two sides of a single goal of preparing school children for labor activity. Teaching under the new curricula should raise efficiency of training and thereby create better opportunities for inculcating school children with a creative attitude toward labor.[12]

Secondary

Secondary schools of several types exist in the Soviet Union.

Secondary General Education. There are two plans, both involving some vocational training for a period of three years:

a) Schools for Working and Rural Youth.

Rural youths attend school when not needed to perform agricultural work, and urban students attend night classes and take correspondence courses.

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[12] A. G. Dubov, "Labor Training in the New Programs for Grades 5-8," Soviet Education, Vol. 10:3, January 1968, pp. 18-19.

b) Secondary General Education Labor Polytechnical School with Production Training.

Academic schooling is combined with training in a chosen profession or trade. On graduation, the student is qualified to enter higher education and will have a certificate giving his qualifications in the chosen vocation or profession.

Secondary Specialized Education - The Technicum. The Technicum provides skilled workers in industry and agriculture, as well as cultural, educational, and health services.

Schools for the Gifted. These are for training musicians, dancers, and artists. There is no work production required, but there is a "labor training," which may merely be in the form of lectures. (Even here, lip service is given to the concept of labor training.)

Vocational Schools. There are two categories of Professional Technical Schools:

a) Town Professional-Technical Schools.

Day and night sessions for one to three years depending on the specific trades taught.

b) Rural Professional-Technical Schools.

Mechanical and agricultural trade courses of one to two years. Students produce goods for the market, making the school self-supporting; therefore, apprentice wages are paid.

While the mere description of the latter two categories is sufficient to indicate the thrust of their educational mission, it is necessary to explore the first two more fully, emphasizing that polytechnical education encompasses academic education along with more practical vocational elements.

V. A. Sukhomlinskii contends that youth can be effectively prepared, both psychologically and practically, for work only when training rests upon a broad polytechnical basis. Moreover, he feels that a person needs the widest possible exposure to vocational options during the years when the moral make-up is forming. He contends that the more deeply a young person is made aware of his own strengths and potentials via polytechnical education, the more the person will realize that work is an all-important form of participation in a societal life.[13]

The mission of this kind of school is well stated by M. A. Zhidelev in the following paragraph:

> Properly organized production training not only does not lead to converting schools into vocational-technical educational establishments; on the contrary it emphasizes all the more strongly their role and significance as general schools intended for training well-developed men and women who will in time actively participate in productive labor, who are prepared for professional activity, ready to continue their education to master the sciences in the interests of Communistic society.[14]

It must be borne in mind that in the above mentioned schools, vocational education is <u>not</u> the main mission but rather a component of the total program which has the dual goal of exposing the pupil to vocational choices, and preparing him for further (sometimes higher) education necessary to achieve such goals while at the same time inculcating vocationally oriented attitudes.

On the other hand, the Technicum has a vocational preparation goal per se. About 95% of the students enrolled in this kind of school

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[13]V. A. Sukhomlinskii, "Vocational Training Needs a Broad Polytechnical Base," <u>Soviet Education</u>, Vol. 2:8, June 1967, pp. 29-30.

[14]M. A. Zhidelev, "What is Required of Vocational Training in Secondary Schools," <u>Soviet Education</u>, Vol. 4:9, July 1962, pp. 53-64.

terminate their education with these schools, but they can be the entree to the institutions of higher education. Students come to these schools from the eight-year or ten-year schools and courses vary from three to five years. To turn out technicians is their primary goal. Their graduates fill the intermediate strata of skilled factory worker, industrial worker and farm worker as well as filling jobs in cultural, educational, and health areas.

Higher Education

Higher education is of two basic types. These are universities with affiliated research and humanities institutes and the higher technical institutes. The former (VUZ) train specialists for scientific research establishments and teachers for secondary schools and higher education, and grant advanced scholarly degrees. The latter (VTUZ) train engineers who will be capable not only of making full use of modern machines, but also of creating machines of the future as well as scientists and highly trained technological specialists. These institutions grant advanced technical and scientific degrees.

The latter accommodate about 90 percent of all students enrolled in higher education. Both types of these institutions, much like Soviet science, are mission-oriented with scholarship emerging as a kind of by-product rather than the primary goal of the system.

From this very brief overview of the three components levels of Soviet education, it can be concluded that in addition to the exclusively vocational (or at least career) functions and purely educational ones, there are vocational indoctrinational functions as well which are of great importance.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The average Soviet citizen is reasonably content with his lot or at least resigned to it, and often even proud of it. In a society where there are few artificial standards of prestige, the worker simply is not made to feel so inferior. Instead he is a part of a vast plan, and he knows that no matter how small his contribution to the overall design, it is nonetheless vital.

The country and people are far from being a gray limbo inhabited by the living dead as is popularly supposed. Instead, there is a youthful, enthusiastic, and sometimes raw optimism about the future which contrasts sharply with the attitude held by many jaded and overpriveleged American citizens. Yet it would be incredibly naive to conclude that the overall picture of cheerful acceptance, conformity, and optimism does not mask certain elements of change and unrest insofar as the educational and vocational aspects of Soviet society are concerned. One has only to read Soviet educational journals to realize that the need to pursue and strengthen indoctrinational efforts is an ongoing and relentless one.

Merely to list several titles makes the informed person suspicious that everything may not be completely perfect in the "workers paradise;" "Instilling a Positive Attitude in Pupils Toward General-Educational Knowledge and a Trade" or "Instilling Secondary School Students with Enthusiasm and Respect for Manual Work and an Interest in Learning a Trade."

It is clear that indoctrination is an ongoing necessity and that over the last 15 years there has been a persistent campaign to arouse the interest of young people in physical labor.

What about the immediate present? Several articles have appeared very recently in The Christian Science Monitor which indicate quite clearly that the problem is a growing one at the present time.

On September 11, 1974 Paul Wohl indicated that in spite of more than 50 years of glorification of the proletariat, factory work was being shunned by Soviet youth. He says that in a survey of 22 Moscow schools made in 1973, only 30 of 3,000 students queried expressed a preference for production work. The same trend was expressed both in Leningrad and in provincial cities such as Perm where it was evident that students had higher education as their goal. Mr. Wohl interprets this trend as follows:

> Soviet Sociologists explain the student's reluctance for factory or farm work by two factors; first the exceptionally low social prestige enjoyed by workers and peasants in everyday Soviet society; the desire of students to improve their status and to 'make a career.'[15]

Mr. Wohl further found that worker-parents did not recommend their trades to their children. Even those who do enter factory work tend to consider this status as temporary.

Certainly the foregoing can be construed as rather conclusive evidence that the Soviets are faced with a problem very similar to that in American education but, probably because of the difference in the two socio-political systems and especially given the kind of uniform and controlled system that the U.S.S.R. has, this problem is a far smaller one in that country than here.

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[15]Paul Wohl, "Soviet Youth Shun Factory Work for Office Jobs," The Christian Science Monitor, September 11, 1974.

It would be foolhardy to assume that the Soviet educational system could be superimposed on the free American society. Moreover, in the light of recent developments in Soviet education one must be cautious in suggesting that there are any features which could be translated into terms acceptable to Americans.

The crux of this problem in the U.S.A. lies in the re-education of American attitudes toward labor. This re-education would need to be directed primarily at parents who must be made to see the necessity for, and the inherent dignity of, labor so that they may become more realistic and less selfish in guiding their children into satisfying and useful career choices. The Soviets have tried to demonstrate that precisely this sort of re-education can be accomplished successfully with adults and young people alike. Evidently this has not been as successful in the U.S.S.R. as was thought even a few years ago.

Probably above all, parents need to be continually and subtly exposed to this attitude which would presumably make them more amenable toward labor careers which their children might choose. At any rate, it seems a far more realistic approach than our present combination of virtually meaningless "manual training" and "home economics" along with belated (and too often college oriented) career days and clinics at the high school level.

Certainly a broad network of first-rate vocational-technical schools would be a better solution than our present two-year associate degree programs at universities on several counts. First, a school equipped solely for such training in all likelihood would provide a far better education for its students. Secondly, its students would not be subjected to the degrading second-rate citizenship which they sometimes suffer on

academically oriented universities or campuses. It has been the experience of this writer in teaching in the associate degree program practicum held during the Summer Terms at the Pennsylvania State University, that these students often verbalized their feeling of inferiority brought on by attitudes of both students and some faculty members toward them.

Here we might well study the Soviet Technicum because this institution does produce highly qualified technically trained persons. Also, we might well emulate some of the incentives offered in relation to this institution, such as stipends for students and opportunities for a very small percentage of graduates to enter higher education.

A more realistic educational system must combine new thinking on the part of our top educational administrators at the national level, and a massive publicity campaign to air and emphasize such new attitudes.

Probably we can best learn from the Soviet experience what not to do. Quite obviously the "hard-sell" in Soviet indoctrination is not so effective as it was once though to be in convincing either young people or their parents of the advantages of a vocational education.

Rather than the continual hammering for idealogical conditioning of the Soviets we need to launch a campaign of altering attitudes toward labor, of improving the quality of vocational education by improving our entire system in this area. We need to encourage the less materialistic ideas of our young people and wean their elders from old attitudes.

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WHY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION SHOULD BE OFFERED IN THE COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGE

by
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Contemporary Status

The twentieth century has been an era of expansion, of changing goals, and of flexibility in education. In the course of these changes, higher education has been released from its aristocratic ideals, which Rudolph calls "the most dramatic fact about the course of American higher education in the twentieth century."[1] Conceived in this climate of change, the community junior college was born into the American educational scene amidst ambivalence and confusion. There were expeditious, unplanned, and uncoordinated changes in the institutional purposes of colleges and universities. These shifts left the general society with a demand for post-high school educational service but no college or university to provide this service. A new institution evolved to do so and to eliminate the educational vacuum in service needed. This gave rise to the community junior college.[2]

In its search for a raison d'etre, the community junior college contributed to the reexamination and redefinition of the purposes of

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[1] F. Rudolph, The American College and University (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962), p. 442.

[2] S. V. Martorana, "The Preservation of the Uniqueness of the Community College." A Day in Sante Fe, J. P. Cosand, et al. (Gainesville, Florida: Sante Fe Junior College, 1971), pp. 151-163.

higher education in America.[3] These multipurpose institutions recognized that the needs, interests, and capacities of individuals differ; and, therefore, the educational paths by which people can "become all that they are capable of becoming" must differ. For this reason the community junior college has greatly expanded higher education and increased the variety of educational programs that now exist under the "college" umbrella.

The community junior college has come a long way over the seven decades of its existence, but perhaps the most significant development has been the rapid expansion of post-secondary vocational education. In a period in which there is a leveling off and, even in some instances, decreasing enrollments in higher education, post-secondary vocational education continues to attract increasing numbers of students who look to it for preparation for a variety of occupations. In October, 1973, the proportion of vocational students in the community junior college was 44 percent, or 1.4 million students out of 3.2 million students in all 1165 two-year institutions, public and private.[4] In 1966 only 13 percent of the community junior college students were enrolled in vocational programs.[5] These post-secondary institutions have begun to respond to the needs of its heterogeneous student population. Community

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[3]M. Brick, Forum and Focus for the Junior College Movement (New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1963).

[4]S. Menefee, "Finding New Directions," Change. Volume 6, No. 6, July/August, 1974. pp. 54-55.

[5]C. H. Buzzell and S. S. Hollander, "The Place of the Post-Secondary Institutions in Vocational Education." Journal of Industrial Teacher Education, Vol. 11, No. 2, Winter 1974. pp. 7-12.

junior college catalogues across the country display an array of 100 or more occupational offerings in the "clusters" of occupations designated by the U.S. Office of Education.[6] Further evidence of this growth of vocational programs is shown by Schultz, who randomly selected 20 institutions which have been in operation since 1954 and which represent a broad geographical distribution. A comparison was made of the number of occupational programs offered during the 1958-59 and 1970-71 academic terms. The results show that the average number of programs offered per institution increased from 9.2 in 1958-59 to 36.4 in 1970-71, the least number offered by an institution increased from two to nine, and the largest number offered increased from 23 to 80.[7] As one can readily see from these figures, the role of vocational education in the community junior college is now a major function.

The Rationale

The development of vocational education in the community junior college has evolved through three interrelated rationale: the historical-legislative, the pragmatic, and the philosophical.

The Historical-Legislative Rationale

The history of vocational education in the United States relies heavily on federal legislation for support and for the fostering of the many changes. Federal aid for vocational education had its beginning

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[6] R. M. Worthington, "A U.S. Office Education View of Career Education." Journal of Industrial Teacher Education, Vol. 10, No. 2, Winter, 1973. pp. 18-24.

[7] R. E. Schultz, "Curriculum Trends and Directions in American Junior Colleges." Peabody Journal of Education, Vol. 48, No. 4, July, 1971.

well over 100 years ago with the passage of the Morrill Act in 1862. This Act provided for the establishment of agricultural and mechanical colleges in all the states.[8] Brick stated that the changes of the land-grant college movement brought about in American higher education undoubtedly prepared the way for the eventual acceptance of the community college idea.[9] The questions raised by the establishment of the land-grant colleges in the nineteenth century were the same as those debated by the community college leaders in the twentieth century. Can the "liberal" and "practical" in higher education be combined successfully? Should post-high school education be limited to an educational elite or include all those who can profit from advanced study?

Although the community junior college movement is essentially a phenomenon of the twentieth century, its roots go well back into the nineteenth century. Thornton described the period, from 1850 to 1920, as the evolutionary period of the community college.[10] During this period, community colleges were developing as post-high school institutions, lower-division segments of universities, or four-year colleges. However, from the very onset the junior college put some stress upon preparation for immediate vocational life. Fields points out that in

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[8]M. L. Barlow, Vocational Education (Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1965).

[9]Brick, op. cit.

[10]J. W. Thornton, The Community Junior College (2d ed.; New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 46.

the founding of the first California junior college at Fresno, mention was made of vocational preparation as a function of the institution.[11]

The second developmental period described by Thornton extends from 1920 to 1945 and is referred to as the period of the expansion of occupational programs.[12] An early influence exerted on the rapid expansion of these programs in the junior college was the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917.[13] This marked the beginning of federal legislation promoting vocational education below the four-year college level. Even though this Act influenced the development of vocational programs in the junior college, federal assisted vocational education was conducted primarily for students in the public high schools.

During this pre-World War II period, few citizens attended junior colleges, perhaps less than 200,000 students were enrolled on a national basis in 1940.[14]

Another factor which influenced vocational education in the junior college at this time was the stimulation received from the work of the Commission on Junior College Terminal Education of the American Association of Junior Colleges, financed by the General Education Board of New York City. The Commission called attention to the need for occupational education at the junior college level and stimulated efforts to develop

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[11]R. R. Fields, The Community College Movement (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1962).

[12]Thornton, op. cit., p. 51.

[13]L. L. Medsker and D. Tillery, Breaking the Access Barrier (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971), p. 14.

[14]Ibid.

programs. This project has probably done more for the promotion of vocational education in the junior college than any other single force.[15]

World War II considerably disrupted these efforts and lessened the effects of the terminal-education studies. However, it replaced and reinforced them with two developments. In the early part of the war effort, the junior college participated vigorously in defense-training and war-training programs. These innovations left their mark on these colleges in the form of facilities, equipment, experienced personnel, and favorable attitudes toward this type of education, and the enrollment of veterans at the conclusion of the war.[16] With this came the end of Thornton's Period of Expansion of Occupational Programs.

Vocational education obtained generous support during World War II because the public strongly felt that the development of certain skills was essential to the war effort. Between 1940 and 1945, seven million war production workers were given pre-employment and supplementary training under the Vocational Education for National defense Program.[17] In 1946, the George-Barden Act was enacted into law to replace the George-Dean Act. The funds were allocated to agriculture, home economics, trades and industry, and distributive occupations. However, this money, as most of the previous vocational education monies, was allocated for less than college grade use.

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[15]A. C. Gillie, Essays on Occupational Education in the Two-Year College (University Park, PA: Department of Vocational Education, The Pennsylvania State University, 1970), p. 2.

[16]Fields, op. cit.

[17]Gillie, op. cit., p. 11.

During the decade 1945-1955, a considerable amount of money found its way into post-secondary vocational programs throughout the country by way of the G.I. Bill.

In 1958 the National Defense Education Act made funds available ". . . for the training of individuals designed to fit them for useful employment as highly skilled technicians in recognized occupations requiring scientific knowledge . . . in fields necessary for the national defense."[18] However, again this Act was able to give support only to programs of less than college grade.

In an attempt to train the persistent unemployed, the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 provided $4.5 million for occupational training. And in 1962 the Manpower Development and Training Act had provisions for training the unemployed and also for upgrading those individuals whose skills were becoming outdated because of the changing occupational needs of society. Community colleges were especially well suited to assume responsibilities for vocational training under the provisions of this Act.[19]

With the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the renaissance for vocational education was started.[20] It was this Act which increased the likelihood of using public funds for postsecondary vocational education. In effect this legislation established the place

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[18] G. Venn, Man, Education and Work (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1964), pp. 61-62.

[19] L. C. Vaccaro, "The Manpower Development and Training Act and the Community College." Junior College Journal, Vol. 34, No. 3, 1963, pp. 21-23.

[20] Gillie, op. cit., p. 12.

of vocational education beyond the high school as a desirable goal.[21] Because of apparent reluctance from some states to use the monies provided by the 1963 Act, further categorization of the funds were made through the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968. This Act earmarked funds specifically for post-secondary vocational education.

Other legislation also provided monies to the community college at this time. Most notably were the Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963 and the Higher Education Act of 1965. The first of these acts encouraged the growth of the community junior college by providing specifically earmarked construction funds. The second was a continuation of the first and added monies earmarked for the planning and development of growing institutions as well as institutional aid for various aspects of academic development.[22]

The Higher Education Amendments of 1972 are of particular interest to community junior colleges. These amendments reflect the congressional intent and the administrative thrust to provide comprehensive post-secondary education for the needs of today's diverse student body. This federal mandate was designed to encourage educational institutions which are occupationally oriented, accessible, and comprehensive to accelerate their accomplishments.[23]

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[21] G. B. Leighbody, Vocational Education in America's Schools: Major Issues in the 1970's (Chicago: American Technical Society, 1972), p. 80.

[22] S. V. Martorana and A. J. Sturtz, "The Higher Education Amendments of 1972." Community College Review, Vol. 1, No. 1, July/August, 1973, pp. 4-17.

[23] M. Y. Martin, "Recent Trends in Community College Occupational Education." Community College Review, Vol. 1, No. 4, Winter, 1974, pp. 29-34.

And finally, one of the greatest opportunities ahead for community junior colleges lies in working with their states and communities under the new Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973. The community junior colleges are ideally fitted to develop regional skills centers and CETA job training programs which will strengthen the resources of the colleges as well as help the jobless trainees.[24]

The historical and legislative actions provided significant impetus to the growth of vocational education in the community junior college.

The Pragmatic Rationale

In recent years rapid technological change in most occupational areas has created a growing demand for highly trained and skilled personnel. Although the full scope of this change may not be comprehended for years to come, its dimensions are near enough to call for a massive response on the part of American education. As late as 1964, only 10 percent of those completing their education below the baccalaureate level had training which prepared them for specific occupations.[25]

Recently thousands of young people have been unable to find employment largely because they possess no marketable skills. While the need for trained personnel has been recognized throughout history, the problem of providing such personnel has become increasingly difficult as the rate of change in manpower needs has accelerated. When an individual could expect to spend a lifetime in the same occupation and could expect to transmit to his children in essentially unchanged form the skills,

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[24]Meneffe, op. cit.

[25]Venn, op. cit.

knowledge, and attitudes which he had learned, the need for institutionalizing vocational education was much less than it is now, when few people can expect to engage in exactly the same productive activities for even a year.[25] The advent of the new technology has led us into a stage of work activity in which the emphasis has shifted from the manipulative to the cognitive powers.[27]

The great need for middle-level occupational education programs is demonstrated by the fact that the uneducated and the unprepared are the unemployed. Many writers have looked to post-secondary vocational education as a means of remedying this situation. The higher a person's educational attainment, the more likely he is to be in the labor force, to avoid unemployment, to be unemployed only briefly when he enters or reenters the labor force or changes jobs, and to hold a better job.[28] There is a positive correlation between level of education and lifetime earnings.

These developments are strong testimonials to the values of vocational education in the labor force and increasing the employment and earnings of individuals. However, for vocational education to be effective, it must be related to the labor market. Specifically, it must be planned on the basis of labor-market predictions. An examination of the job market and the demands of commerce, health and welfare, industry,

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[26] R. N. Evans, Foundations of Vocational Education (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971).

[27] Venn, op. cit.

[28] S. A. Levitan, G. L. Mangum, and R. Marshall, Human Resources and Labor Markets (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1972).

and human services, shows that even more effective programs must be developed and even greater use made of the nation's community junior colleges to educate and prepare manpower for society's occupations.[29]

If America is to survive as a free democracy in this new technological society in which we live, we must thoroughly reexamine our educational philosophy. We must overhaul our educational system and design programs which are calculated to prepare our citizens for a life in a world of work which demands skilled labor.[30] The two most frequently cited purposes of this education are to prepare the student for a vocation and to add to the general enrichment of life. The community junior college has reexamined and redefined the philosophy of higher education, and it is the segment of American education which has the greatest potential for providing society with the highly skilled individuals currently in demand, through post-secondary vocational education.

The Philosophical Rationale

Many of the individuals who led the fight for the inclusion of vocational education in the community junior college did so because of a strong philosophical commitment to the idea of equality of educational opportunity. Those who supported vocational education maintained that the community college had an obligation to serve those who wished to prepare for the world of work, as well as those who were preparing to transfer to a four-year college or university.

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[29] K. G. Skaggs, "Occupational Education Programs in Community and Junior Colleges: The Changing State of the Art." Technical Education Yearbook, 1973-1974 (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Prakken Publications, Inc., 1973), pp. 25-27.

[30] G. Venn, Man, Education and Manpower (Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1970).

Cross stated that in the history of higher education in this country there have been three major philosophies as to who should attend college: the aristocratic, the meritocratic, and the egalitarian.[31] The aristocratic philosophy was based on the premise that the individuals who should attend college are those who could afford it and who needed it for their situation in life. The revolt against the aristocratic philosophy was led by those who maintained that a college education is an earned right, not a birthright. Advocates of the land-grant universities, which heralded the rise of meritocracy, questioned the traditional role of tuition; and they had some unconventional ideas about the curricula that would best serve the needs of the students. The working man claimed he should be able to send his children to college, and these students should be able to prepare for a professional career through the pursuit of a course of studies much broader than that offered by the aristocratic colleges. This concept raised the controversy of liberal versus utilitarian education. Early spokesmen for vocational education defined general education as liberal education for the aristocratic and elite. They insisted that this was contrary to the spirit of American democracy and the American way of life and that vocational education was needed as a form of utilitarian education to counterbalance the overemphasis on liberal education.

Advocates of meritocracy felt that the criteria for college admissions should be based upon scholastic ability and a willingness to study diligently. The rise of the meritocratic philosophy was generally

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[31] K. P. Cross, Beyond the Open Door (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1971).

regarded as a move that, in the best traditions of the country, led to the democratization of higher education, the breaking down of barriers imposed by the aristocracy. Ironically, however, advocates of meritocracy were systematically erecting their own barriers. Philosophically, meritocracy reached its peak in the 1950's.

Currently there is strong support for the egalitarian philosophy toward post-secondary education. Egalitarians maintain that anyone who wants to pursue further education should be helped to do so, regardless of economic resources and regardless of past academic achievement, and that these individuals should be able to advance to the fullest extent of their abilities.

Consideration of vocational education in the community junior college must be derived from this broad concept. Fibel considers the ultimate rationale for the existence of the community junior college is to extend educational opportunities.[32]

As the nation moves toward egalitarianism in post-secondary education and as the national concern for equal opportunity in and access to higher education continues, the diversity of types of institutions necessary to achieve these goals almost certainly means increasing reliance upon the open door, multiple-purpose institution such as the community junior college.[33]

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[32]L. R. Fibel, "Occupational Education in the Community College Today and 1980 " Post-Secondary Occupational Education: An Overview and Strategies, ed. A. C. Gillie (University Park, PA: The Center for the Study of Higher Education, The Pennsylvania State University, 1970), pp. 14-24.

[33]Martorana, op. cit.

This change in philosophy about the purposes of college and who should attend will probably have more impact on educational methods and procedures than anything that has ever happened in higher education.[34]

Conclusion

The community junior college has developed through the twentieth century to fill a void in American higher education. In an attempt to accomplish this task, one of the features has been the emergence of post-secondary vocational education. Many changes had to take place for this to be successful. First of all, the change in the manpower needs of the new technological society were starting to be felt. Technology had progressed to the point where the growing demand for highly skilled individuals could no longer be met in the public high school. Also there was a growing demand for the training of the nation's unemployed. Secondly, there was a shift in the American philosophy as to who should have access to higher education. This egalitarian ideal stands at the heart of the thrust of the community junior college movement in attempting to provide equality of opportunity to all. The low cost, open door community junior college could provide the access, but the vocational education programs along with the college transfer curricula were needed to enable all individuals to progress to the fullest extent of their abilities.

These changes in manpower needs and the shift in the philosophy of higher education put pressure on Congress to lessen the restrictions on the uses of vocational education monies in 1963 and to specifically earmark monies for post-secondary vocational education in 1968. These

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[34] K. P. Cross, "The New Learners." Change, Vol. 5, No. 1, February, 1973, pp. 31-34.

congressional actions along with reinforcement from Title "X" of the Higher Education Amendments of 1972 established the place for vocational education in the community junior college.

One can conclude from these actions that there was and is a great need for post-secondary vocational education and that this need can be filled by the community junior college.

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